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## EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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### CURRICULUM REVISION DURING THE EMERGENCY

FOR THE SECOND TIME in less than ten years we are faced with a national emergency. Again we must discover what part the secondary schools can play and must speedily begin to play it. At the time these lines are written, recommendations which would vitally affect youth of secondary-school age are being debated.

Shall properly qualified youth be deferred to go to college? Or shall there be *no* deferments, with all men drafted at the age of eighteen to serve in some capacity under a form of universal national service? Shall the normal four-year high-school program be compacted into three years? Shall basic military training become a part of the high-school curriculum? Questions such as these are related to the obvious need for the maximum effective use of our manpower in a time of emergency.

There is another question which high-school faculties and the public should be thinking about: *To what extent shall recent efforts to reorganize the curriculum be continued?*

Those persons who regard recent curriculum innovations as misguided may be expected to come forward to assert that we must now return to "the fundamentals." With this position all concerned should immediately and emphatically agree. On this positive but fictitious note of agreement the debate can be shifted to the question: What are the fundamentals?

A start could be made toward an answer to this last question if agreement could first be reached on a rather general level. Suppose, for example, it is granted that the fundamentals are those concepts, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and ways of thinking which are needed by all youth for effective living and participation in a democratic society. Further explora-

tion along this line will soon show that during the last twenty years the major trend in curriculum reorganization at the high-school level has been toward *more emphasis on the fundamentals* in this sense. Thus, the general-education movement in its various forms (referred to as "unified studies," "common learnings," "social living," or "core courses," and most recently as "life-adjustment education") has really sought to redefine the fundamentals for modern youth facing modern problems.

During the decade preceding World War II it seemed that considerable progress was made in the development of core curriculums. This movement was, however, temporarily arrested during the war years. When the fighting with guns came to a stop, efforts to modernize the schools were resumed. Some indication that headway was being made is given by the *Evaluative Criteria, 1950 Edition* of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards (American Council on Education, Washington 6, D.C.). The revision, which is intended to replace the 1940 edition, makes provision for study of the extent to which a school is meeting the common educational needs of youth. It also has a section designed to assist in the evaluation of the core program. These new sections are evidently provided with a view to keeping the *Criteria* abreast of curricular developments in the secondary schools.

Although a trend toward the improvement of programs for general ed-

ucation has been clearly discernible, schools have been sluggish in adopting the more advanced organizational forms. In United States Office of Education Bulletin 1950, Number 5, Grace S. Wright reports on the *Core Curriculum in Public High Schools* as of 1949. According to an informal estimate in this report, only 2.0 per cent of the schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils, and 11.3 per cent of the larger schools, may be said to have core programs. These schools together constitute 3.5 per cent of all public secondary schools. Ten states report no such program, and seven states account for 62 per cent of the schools having core programs. These programs are largely confined to the junior high school grades. The following is a quotation from the report:

In its proposals for reorganization of the secondary-school curriculum in *Education for All American Youth*, the Educational Policies Commission recommended a continuous course in "common learnings" to foster growth in personal living and in civic competence which would extend from the seventh through the fourteenth years. Judging from the Inventory returns, very few of the secondary schools of the country which have adopted the core program have included it in all grades. Seventy-two per cent of the schools have the core in one or two grades only.

It is clear that curriculum reorganization of a fundamental type has not upset the smooth operation of the overwhelming majority of the nation's schools. If it is claimed (and it probably will be) that high-school students or graduates as a group are unpre-

pared to face the tasks of the emergency, it is not because large numbers of them were "frittering away their time" in core courses.

The fact should not be overlooked that, during recent years, curriculum changes have also been made by revising existing courses and by adding new ones. Thus, the Fall, 1950, issue of the *University of Kansas Bulletin of Education* contains a report on "A Study of Core Curricula in Kansas," in which it is shown that these two methods (revision and new courses) of effecting change were used by 66 per cent and 47 per cent, respectively, of the responding schools. However, since the questionnaire was returned by less than 30 per cent of the 750 schools queried, there is little reason to believe that these two methods have as yet produced widespread and fundamental changes in Kansas or elsewhere.

Rather than abandon curriculum revision during the emergency, we should double and redouble our efforts to effect needed changes. We should focus our attention on the fundamentals (in the broad sense suggested earlier) and adapt our organization to effective ways of achieving them. The characteristics of good schools are known. We should make our schools as good as we know how to make them—and do it as fast as we can.

Some teachers and some laymen may be unwilling to accept the definition of the fundamentals given here or the proposal that curriculum revision should proceed apace. The issue may,

of course, be approached in other ways. Thus, the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth and the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, have recently published (at ten cents a copy, through Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois) an unusually attractive pamphlet entitled *Good Schools Don't Just Happen*. It is dedicated "to community leaders in churches, education, business groups, women's organizations, civic clubs," and many other groups. It includes the following statements arranged in the form of a score card, so that a reader may check whether the goals are accepted by his community "wholeheartedly," "partially," or "not at all." The book's discussion of each goal is omitted here.

*What are some of the goals of a good school?*

A school is good when it meets the individual and societal needs of every youth of school age in the community.

A good school helps youth—

- to acquire the basic tools of learning
- to select activities which best prepare them for life
- to prepare for, get and hold a job
- to maintain mental health and physical fitness
- to be a good consumer
- to do what is right
- to be a good citizen
- to be a good family member
- to use time wisely

These statements may be regarded as an effort to define the fundamentals more precisely by mentioning important sorts of life-activity in which education should function. There are

numerous other statements of essentially the same ideas in recent educational literature.

The proposal that curriculum revision should continue has the backing of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools (2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19, New York), of which Roy E. Larsen, president of Time Inc., is chairman. In November they published Volume I, Number 1, of *Citizens and Their Schools*, which they say will present "news for people working for better schools in their communities." This first issue, a letter-size, four-page leaflet, tells of progress being made by various localities in campaigns for improving the schools. It also contains the text of the statement on "Schools and the National Crisis" recently made by thirty-six members of the Commission. The following quotations are taken from this pronouncement:

During the months which have followed the beginning of the conflict in Korea, the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools has been asked many times what the role of citizens working for better schools should be in time of war or near war. In hundreds of communities in every state of the union citizens are wondering whether they should press their efforts for better schools now.

To us it is encouraging that throughout the confused years which followed World War II Americans worked harder than ever to improve a public school system which already stands as one of the greatest social triumphs in history. Here and now in this country we have come closer than mankind ever has before to the goal of equal educational opportunity for all. But all thoughtful

citizens recognize that we still are a long way from perfection and that much remains to be done. . . .

There are thus two compelling reasons for pressing our efforts for better education. One is that this work is yet far from finished. The second is that this work tests and measures the integrity of our own democratic purpose.

In re-appraising the importance of these objectives in the light of current history, we believe they have gained rather than lost importance. The conflict in Korea is obviously a part of a much wider one which has been smoldering for many years and which cannot be expected to die down in the immediate future. . . .

Of course, it will be necessary to adapt our plans for our schools to the immediate requirements of our expanding program for defense. But those who are in the fight for better schools should be alert to secure for our schools a top priority in the new line-up of civilian activities that lies ahead.

Recently General Bradley, chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, said: "An educated people is easy to lead but hard to drive; easy to govern but impossible to enslave." It is our public schools which must bear the main responsibility for maintaining an educated people here. It would be tragic indeed if we neglected them when we need them most.

If this point of view is generally adopted, the schools should proceed to organize classes and learning experiences for the students in ways which will facilitate the most effective learning. Many of the desirable learning experiences are of such a nature that they cut across the usual subject-matter boundaries and require larger blocks of time than a single period. These are typical characteristics of core courses.



As an example, the problem of what to do in case of an atomic-bomb attack may now be appropriate for study in certain urban communities. The Official United States Government Booklet, *Survival under Atomic Attack* (for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., at ten cents), should be a basic source of information, but it should be supplemented by other learning experiences based on other materials. It may be remarked in passing that, in contrast to most earlier discussions, which were completely pessimistic in their outlook, this one stresses survival through intelligent and informed behavior if an attack occurs.

A question immediately arises for the schools to answer: Where should this material be taught? Since every student should be reached, the only organizational device available at present in most schools is the home room. If the recommendation of the Educational Policies Commission relative to a continuous course in "common learnings" had been enthusiastically implemented in the years since 1944, the schools of today would be in a better position to deal with preparation for atomic attack and with other educational problems which will persist when the emergency of the moment has passed. We do not lack adequate blueprints to show what needs to be done. What we lack is effective action.

### SILHOUETTE OF THE GOOD CITIZEN

EVERY EDUCATED PERSON can state at least a few of the characteristics of a good citizen. Thus, for example, one person may mention that "the good citizen exercises his right to vote." Another may state that "the good citizen respects and upholds the law and its agencies." How many such statements are necessary to give a reasonably complete description of a good citizen? Are five enough, or does it require a dozen, or perhaps a hundred?

Statements of objectives for secondary schools that purport to be comprehensive always contain, either directly or indirectly, some reference to "development of good citizenship." Educational literature is permeated with references to the objective and with discussions of what has been done about it in the schools, or perhaps more commonly, what should be done. Many of these references manage to avoid a precise description of what good citizenship means in terms of behavior, and others focus on admittedly partial or restricted aspects rather than on a comprehensive behavioral description.

In sharp contrast is the list of "Characteristics of the Good Democratic Citizen" which appeared in *Social Education* for November, 1950. This formulation is remarkable for several reasons. In the first place, it is nothing but a list of behaviors—modes of thinking, feeling, and acting—

which may be said to characterize the good citizen. It is true that a two-paragraph preamble by the editor tells how the list came into existence as a response to a request from the Armed Forces Information and Education Division of the Department of Defense and gives a hint as to its probable validity, but there is no text in the usual sense. However, it is apparent that a serious and successful effort was made to produce a behavioral characterization of a type which will be useful for a variety of purposes. Among the groups that should use it are curriculum committees, community councils, evaluation committees, and the like.

In the second place, this formulation is remarkable in that it accomplishes its task in twenty-four major statements. Each of these is followed by four or five additional more specific statements which serve to clarify and amplify the major statement. Thus, about 135 statements seem to suffice for a good description of the citizenship objective.

There is no indication that any effort was made to classify the statements in terms of knowledges, attitudes, appreciations, and similar categories. Such a shuffling might suggest types of behavior which have been overlooked. This might be a useful exercise for a curriculum study group, since the kind of learning experience to be provided for achieving one kind of behavior is often inappropriate for a different kind.

There are many eloquent discus-

sions of the duties and privileges of citizenship which are less effective than this unadorned list. One of its chief virtues is that there is no effort to discuss, explain, or defend the behaviors. As a consequence, it brings out clearly the magnitude of the task to be achieved. Although much of the value is lost when the more specific sub-behaviors are omitted, the outlines of the good democratic citizen are given by the twenty-four general behaviors quoted below:

1. Believes in equality of opportunity for all people.
2. Values, respects, and defends basic human rights and privileges guaranteed by the U.S. Constitution.
3. Respects and upholds the law and its agencies.
4. Understands and accepts . . . democratic principles as guides in evaluating his behavior and the policies and practices of other persons and groups, and judges his own behavior and the behavior of others by them.
5. Understands that in the long run people will govern themselves better than any self-appointed group would govern them.
6. Puts the general welfare above his own whenever a choice between them is necessary.
7. Feels that he has inherited an unfinished experiment in self-government which it is his duty and privilege to carry on.
8. Exercises his right to vote.
9. Accepts civic responsibilities and discharges them to the best of his ability.
10. Knows techniques of social action (e.g., how to win support for desirable legislation) and can co-operate with others in achieving such action.
11. Accepts the basic idea that in a democracy the majority has the right to make decisions under the Constitution.
12. Assumes a personal responsibility to

contribute toward a well-informed climate of opinion on current social, economic, and political problems or issues.

13. Realizes the necessary connection of education with democracy.

14. Respects property rights, meets his obligations in contracts, and obeys regulations governing the use of property.

15. Supports fair business practices and fair relations between employers and employees.

16. Assumes a personal responsibility for the wise use of natural resources.

17. Accepts responsibility for the maintenance and improvement of a competitive economic system assisted and regulated when necessary by governmental action.

18. Knows in general how other economic systems operate, including their political and social consequences.

19. Knows about, critically evaluates, and supports promising efforts to prevent war, but stands ready to defend his country against tyranny and aggression.

20. Is deeply aware of the interdependence of people and realizes that a good life can be attained only by the organized co-operation of millions of people all over the world.

21. Understands cultures and ways of life other than his own.

22. Cultivates qualities of character and personality that have a high value in his culture.

23. Is a responsible family member and assumes his full responsibilities for maintaining the civic standards of his neighborhood and community.

24. Recognizes taxes as payment for community services and pays them promptly.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR A FACULTY DISCUSSION

**T**EACHERS who want to read a light or humorous article for relaxation are not likely to pick up the latest issue of a professional magazine. When

such an article is unexpectedly found in the course of routine browsing, there may be a slight grinding of mental gears as the reader shifts from one mind-set to another. Many browsers in the *Clearing House* for December, 1950, must have had such an experience with "The Movable-Desk Pupils Tackle Taxation."

Perhaps that title should have been enough warning. Many an unwary reader, however, must have taken the first paragraph at face value. It reads as follows:

My eighth-grade arithmetic class was working in the area of percentage. In order to make the subject as meaningful as possible we had arranged the movable desks so that they formed a large per cent sign. This proved to be such a satisfactory approach that on some days we spent the whole class period working out variations of this formation, and the pupils, after they caught the idea, showed an unbelievable amount of enthusiasm for the subject.

Within four more paragraphs the author, Don Gospill, of East Intermediate School at Jackson, Michigan, not only has the class deeply embroiled in a taxation issue but also has found occasion to rearrange the desks into the shape of a dollar sign, the symbol for equality, and a question mark. One more brief quotation will be enough to convey the general tone of the piece:

As the class warmed up to the situation, I remembered that one criterion of the democratic method of teaching is the fact that the teacher can leave or enter the classroom without greatly affecting the discipline. So I decided to put our present experience to the test. Closing the door behind me, I walked

slowly down the hall for fifty yards or more and was gratified to hear, even at that distance, the constant hum of industry. If anything, it sounded a little more democratic than when I left.

This short article—it is only about eight hundred words—is cleverly written. Most teachers, if they did not skip it entirely, probably gave it no more than two minutes of time and several smiles before turning to the next item. It deserves more attention than this. On second thought, one becomes aware that it expresses a somewhat cynical viewpoint toward modern and democratic methods of teaching—and indirectly toward “democracy in action” on the broader social scene. That the article is offered as fiction rather than fact does not diminish its effectiveness as satirical criticism. This alone may justify its publication, but there is another use which may be made of it. A school faculty or a class in a teacher-training program could use it as the “kickoff” for an interesting and potentially fruitful discussion of educational theory and classroom methods.

If it is granted that movable desks are desirable for reasons other than the possibility of making novel symbolic arrangements, the discussion can move on to what these reasons are. If the group will take as a premise the proposition that democratic methods of teaching are desirable, the discussion can move on to the listing and exposition of characteristics of these methods. Several of these characteris-

tics are suggested in Gopill's article. A little time could be spent in an effort to judge the validity of the criticisms implied by this satire and to suggest ways of improving the situation.

Needless to say, if democratic methods are to succeed in the classroom and are to produce citizens committed to their values and skilled in their use, the teachers must themselves genuinely accept these values. One way of testing this might be to find out how amusing the article about the “movable-desk pupils” appears to different persons. The hypothesis is that those who think it most amusing are most skeptical of the values of democratic methods of teaching.

#### YOUTH TELL ABOUT THEMSELVES

IN A NEW BOOKLET, *Let's Listen to Youth*, H. H. Remmers, professor of psychology and education at Purdue University, and C. G. Hackett, chief psychologist and acting director of the Upper Miami Valley Guidance Center at Piqua, Ohio, discuss problems of teen-agers and give suggestions to parents, teachers, and youth workers on helping adolescents with their problems. Data reported on the questions which concern youth are based on the results of a survey of 15,000 teen-agers by the Purdue Opinion Panel for Young People.

There is so much talk these days about youth problems that it is easy to lose perspective. One could mistakenly come to the conclusion that

nearly all young people are constantly struggling with their parents, their school teachers, their classmates, and themselves. The per cent of this sample who checked any one problem rarely equaled or exceeded 50. All such items reported are included in the following list:

- 52 per cent said I want to gain (or lose) weight.
- 54 per cent say I wish I knew how to study better.
- 53 per cent say I have difficulty keeping my mind on my studies.
- 50 per cent wondered what courses would be of most value to them in later life.
- 54 per cent say they want people to like them more.
- 60 per cent want to make new friends.
- 56 per cent want to know what kind of work they are best suited for.

Other items, supposedly dealing with more vital problems, were agreed to by much smaller fractions of this group. It is important to remember that, while most adolescents have real problems of one kind or another at one time or another, at any particular time the normal youngster does not feel unduly depressed by his problems and the stupidity of adults. When he does have a problem, the adult is too frequently at a loss to know how to help. If this booklet relieves the tension of just one such situation, it is probably worth the price of forty cents. It is published by Science Research Associates, 228 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois.

Very little information is given in *Let's Listen to Youth* about the nature

of the 15,000 young people studied. In contrast, an investigation by L. J. Elias reports similar data for boys and girls separately. Moreover, the youth were classified into four groups in terms of parental occupation. These were identified as upper, middle, lower, and farm groups. This report on *Farm Youths' Appraisal of Their Adjustments, Compared with Other Youth* is found in Bulletin 513, Youth Series Number 7, of the State College of Washington at Pullman.

In general, it seems that differences in adjustment between boys and girls are greater than the differences between groups, as when farm children are compared with nonfarm groups. A striking example of this is found in the data on use of the family car. In the middle group, 30.3 per cent of the boys but only 9.8 per cent of the girls reported trouble about use of the car. In every group, boys had more "car trouble" than girls, but the farm boys reporting trouble, namely, 23.5 per cent, is the smallest of any of the boy groups. It is to be noted that this is only about 7 per cent less than the figure reported for middle-group boys.

Among the instances in which differences between boys and girls are less marked than differences between groups are two of special interest. The per cent of participation in school activities declines from 51.2 for the upper-group girls to 31.9 for lower-group girls. About 44 per cent of both farm boys and farm girls report "considerable participation" and, in this



respect, fall only slightly below the upper-group boys. When it comes to planning to continue their education after high-school graduation, the differences between boys and girls in any one group are small, but there is a steady decline in such plans from 83.7 per cent for the upper-group boys to 60.3 percent for the farm boys. It should be noted that this last figure seems remarkably high in terms of the cultural pattern of the past.

The results reported for the youth of Washington State illustrate the desirability of presenting data on adolescent problems and opinions in terms of both sex and social-class groupings. It must be admitted that the purposes and the expository problems of the two bulletins discussed here are entirely different. The data from the Purdue Survey suffice to give a rough picture of the situation and serve to introduce some general but still helpful suggestions. When it comes to helping special groups or individuals, however, much more needs to be known. In Washington, and probably in other states, a satisfactory discussion with a middle-class girl on the use of the family car might fail miserably with her brother. The family is the same, the car is the same, the teacher is the same; but, rightly or wrongly, the attitude of the parents relative to the role of the boy and girl is different. Teachers need to know generalizations of the sort found in these bulletins. They also need to know how to get and use similar local information in individual cases.

### THIRD BIRTHDAY FOR EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE

THREE YEARS AGO Educational Testing Service was formed by combining a major portion of the activities of the College Entrance Examination Board, the Cooperative Test Service of the American Council on Education, and the Graduate Record Office of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. With headquarters at Princeton, New Jersey, the organization consists of operating divisions in test development, statistical analysis, research, test administration, personnel, and business management. In the *College Board Review* for November, 1950, the president, Henry Chauncey, reports on progress under the title "ETS—The First Three Years."

At the present time, Educational Testing Service operates fourteen programs ranging from the College Board Examinations to the New York State Medical and Dental Scholarship Testing Program. It is reported that last year 145,000 candidates were tested for college, graduate-school, and specialized-school admittance.

One of the chief values envisioned for the organization was its potential contribution to a broad program of research in testing. The following quotation from President Chauncey's article shows how this is beginning to take shape:

The research program at ETS is comprehensive in its approach, but it is not necessarily tightly knit. Its general objectives are improvement in the prediction of man's



behavior through knowledge of the factors involved, and improvement in educational processes. An example of one of our specific long-range research goals is the development of the comprehensive system of evaluating progress toward the objectives of education. A substantial beginning in developing such a program has been made. What are the elements of good citizenship? What factors influence good or bad "social adjustment"? How do you teach students to think? All of these questions are involved in the broad objectives of education for which measurement instruments are needed. We are already hard at work on these problems.

A means of satisfactorily measuring aspects of the personality of individuals, using group techniques, is another goal of ETS. Reliable measures of personality would be of great usefulness in educational guidance and selection, but proved tests have not as yet been satisfactorily established, particularly those that can be administered to groups as well as individuals. Several research projects in personality have been inaugurated at ETS, and many exploratory techniques are being tried.

The success of this development is worthy of note because, among other things, it shows that reasonably rapid action in the field of education can, and sometimes does, take place. In 1946 the president of the Carnegie Foundation appointed a Committee on Testing, with President Conant, of Harvard University, as chairman. This committee recommended the organization which became Educational Testing Service. Within less than five years from its inception, a strong and active organization has been welded together. Consequently, it should be confidently expected that progress in scientific test development will normally follow.

#### IN PAPER COVERS

*Manual on current materials* A surprising amount of useful discussion has been crammed into the thirty-two pages of a pamphlet recently published by the Junior Town Meeting League under the title *Using Current Materials*. Major topics include the problems, the origins, the selection, and use of current materials, together with suggestions on making these materials accessible and on formulating school policy relative to them. The weakest section is the one on using current materials in the classroom, although it contains two excellent pages on techniques for evaluating current materials. Most of the other sections offer many helpful ideas on the issues involved in the use of the modern aids which help teachers and students overcome the limitations of the textbook.

Single copies of the booklet may be obtained free from the Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

*Training in manners* The Boy and the Girl Scout organizations have issued a booklet, *Your Ticket to Popularity: Good Manners*, to help young people learn the elements of courteous and graceful behavior. The approach in each section consists of a brief discussion similar to a short short-story, followed by a "Postscript" of informal rules for social behavior in a numbered list. Sketches by a popular cartoonist add

Boston University  
School of Education  
Library

to the attractiveness of the format. This booklet could be used in schools in connection with modern units on "getting along with other people." There is no mention of any merit badges or other extrinsic rewards for good manners. This forty-five-page pamphlet sells for ten cents per copy and is available locally throughout the country from either the Girl Scouts or the Boy Scouts.

*Students' book on the library* The editors have recently received from Thomas Hemenway, headmaster of McBurney School (5 West Sixty-third Street, New York 23, New York) a seventy-six-page pamphlet called *Your Library*, which was published by the students of the school. According to the Introduction, "the topics were selected on the basis of what most students need to know in order to make full use of the library, and what questions are most frequently asked of the librarian." The booklet also contains a short section on "Study Skills," including comments on bibliographies, graphs, maps, and note-taking. "Most

of the material was gathered, revised, rewritten, and then typed in preliminary stages by the students themselves." Instruction on how to use the library is now commonplace in secondary schools. It is unusual, however, to find that a school has available a printed booklet specially written to fit its own library and its own requirements.

Teachers of English in other schools who are looking for a functional learning experience for a class might attempt a similar project. It will give the class ample opportunity to apply the rules for punctuation, outlining, and other writing skills, and should result in a useful product. One feature of this particular project has both good and bad aspects: the job does not lend itself to repetition by class after class, year after year. This makes it more difficult to fit the project into any orderly course of study or sequence of units. Of course, this difficulty in no way diminishes the value of the learning experiences involved for the group which does get the opportunity to work on such a booklet.

MAURICE L. HARTUNG

## WHO'S WHO FOR FEBRUARY

*Authors of news notes and articles*

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by MAURICE L. HARTUNG, associate professor of education at the University of Chicago. PAUL B. DIEDERICH, research associate at the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, sets forth an ethical basis for determining educational objectives. JOHN WITHALL, associate professor of education at the University of Delaware, describes the techniques employed in an actual classroom to facilitate the learning process. LEROY E. BARBER, assistant principal of Academy High School, Erie, Pennsylvania, presents the results of a study of the reasons why some able high-school graduates do not attend college and suggests various means for overcoming this difficulty. LEWIE W. BURNETT, associate professor of education at George Washington University, reports the results of a survey of the curricular patterns of the junior high schools in the state of Washington. The selected references on various subject fields have been prepared by

the following persons: DORA V. SMITH, professor of education at the University of Minnesota; ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago, at present on leave at Frances Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois; EDITH P. PARKER, associate professor of the teaching of geography at the University of Chicago; WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP, associate professor of the teaching of science at the University of Chicago; GEORGE E. HAWKINS, chairman of the Mathematics Department of Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois; and FRANCIS F. POWERS, dean of the College of Education of the University of Washington.

*Reviewers of books*

H. T. MORSE, dean of the General College of the University of Minnesota. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago. V. HOWARD TALLEY, assistant professor of music at the University of Chicago.

## AN ETHICAL BASIS FOR EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES<sup>1</sup>

PAUL B. DIEDERICH

*Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey*



IT IS SO UNCOMMON for a teacher to have clearly in mind any purpose at all for his teaching that, when he announces a set of "objectives," we are inclined to accept it without cavil. If we think about it at all, we tend to believe that, in a democracy, a teacher may direct his teaching toward any purposes he likes, provided they are not subversive of democracy, or immoral, or obviously unbecoming a scholar and a gentleman. Such a belief works better in practice than in theory, for we may rely on the vast, unco-ordinated good sense of the profession to correct the really harmful excesses. As theory, however, it is not satisfying to the mind. If carried to its logical conclusion, it would permit a group of teachers to teach nothing but tap dancing and bricklaying as their program for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. We see at once that teachers are not free to that extent. But where and how does one draw the line? What distinguishes a purpose that we would accept as valid from one that we would reject? On what ultimate basis

can educational objectives be justified?

### THE CLASSICAL VIEW

The basis used at present by most liberal arts colleges seems to be the classical view that each living thing has certain innate potentialities and is a good thing of its kind to the extent that these potentialities are developed. Just as the acorn is capable of becoming an oak if placed in a favorable environment, or of becoming food for hogs if it falls into a trough, young men and women have capacities which must be nourished by education if they are to reach their full development. Of these capacities the most distinctive and important is the use of reason. It is this unique gift which has given man mastery of the earth. The first duty of schools, therefore, is to develop all the powers of the mind. It is argued that, once these powers are developed, they will be sufficient to cope with the problems of daily life without any more specialized training or knowledge than can either be acquired on the spot or hired from an expert.

If I am not mistaken, the root of

<sup>1</sup> An abridgment and revision of an article of the same title originally published in *Ethics*, LVIII (January, 1948), 123-32.

this view of education lies in the first book of the *Nicomachean Ethics*, in which Aristotle argues approximately as follows: We call anything good when it does well what it alone can do, or what it can do better than anything else. We call a knife good if it cuts well, a cow good if it gives plenty of milk, and a flute-player good if he plays the flute well. What, then, is a good man? Obviously, one who does well what man alone can do, or what man can do better than any other creature. What is that? It is using his reason. Reason is the distinctive characteristic of man. A good man, then, is one who reasons well. But what about the clever criminal: is he a good man? No, because he has not reasoned well about his central problem: what he ought to get out of life and how to go about it. A good man is one whose whole life is directed most completely by all the powers of the mind.

No one can deny the nobility of this ideal, and a school will not go far wrong in attempting to develop people who can live the life of reason as conceived by Aristotle. There are, however, several possible objections to this position—and not merely on the naïve ground that Aristotle lived a long while ago. The statement in question is not affected by the passing of time. If it was true when Aristotle wrote it, then it is true now. But I cannot believe that it was ever true.

I shall pass over the objection that other animals are "rational" in varying degrees and the objection that Aristotle overlooked or minimized the

importance of the emotions. I cannot, however, pass over a curious anthropomorphic twist in Aristotle's analogies. All his examples were counted good with reference to man's purposes. But what use does a man make of himself? All the other things were *means* and were good or bad means in relation to what we wanted them for. What do we want ourselves for? A man does not use himself as a means, except very rarely in heroic self-sacrifice.

A second possible objection is that, in the portion of the text to which I have referred, Aristotle set out to discover what was good *for* man—what constituted his welfare and happiness—and then based his conclusion on what man was good *at*. His argument rests on an ambiguity in the word "good."

A third objection is that it is assumed without proof that our distinctive characteristics ought to be cultivated and developed to an unspecified extent. Should a giraffe, for example, aim to extend his neck, until, in one of his descendants, it becomes, let us say, twenty miles long? Such an endeavor would certainly contradict Aristotle's other doctrine of the golden mean.

A fourth objection is that, if education should be concerned solely with the development of our unique attributes, several such attributes have been overlooked. For example, man has often been defined as the only tool-using animal, and he is the only animal without natural covering for his body.

A fifth objection is that, even if we grant that reason is a valuable trait which ought to be developed, have we no obligation toward the characteristics that we share with other animals? Should men pay no attention to eating, sleeping, working, and reproducing, merely because other animals can do these things?

A sixth objection is that a long series of careful experiments, beginning with those of William James, has convinced educators that one cannot teach men to reason well in general but to reason well *about something* that is circumscribed by their knowledge and experience. This conclusion has been so unpalatable to the classical view of education that we keep saying it has been abandoned by the educators themselves; that "transfer" is now known to occur. Of course it does, or all learning would be impossible, but not to anything like the extent that the classical view of education assumes.

Finally, the ideal of living in accordance with reason is not a sufficiently definite goal for a whole program of education. What does the reasonable man hope to get out of the experience of living? Simply the development and use of his capacity for reasoning? Nonsense; there are many other values which can neither be identified with reasoning nor attained solely by reasoning.

#### THE UTILITARIAN VIEW

The chief opposing view of education may be described as "utilitarian."

This view holds that, since people have to do certain things in order to maintain life at a tolerable level and since these things may be classified under a few broad headings (such as work, civic duties, the care of a home and family, and leisure-time pursuits), children should be taught how to carry on the most common and necessary activities under each of these headings. Many of us reject this view out of emotional revulsion against it rather than for clear and compelling reasons, but, if we are ever to build a sound philosophy, we must know what these reasons are.

First, we do not know what things people have to do in order to live well. "Activity analysis" tells us what things people are doing now, but we may be quite sure that these are not the things they ought to be doing. For example, the average American reads less than one book a year; one marriage in three now ends in divorce; and one in every twelve persons is likely to spend some time in a mental hospital. If education emphasized these activities in these proportions, it could hardly be considered a force for improvement.

Second, even if we knew what things people had to do in order to live well, we could not, with any assurance, teach them *how* to do these things. Even the best current notions, whether we follow them or not, are likely to be wrong. Herbert Spencer, the great originator of the utilitarian view of education, in his advice on the rearing of offspring, emphasized the



danger of letting them play outside in flimsy clothing, "their limbs reddened by cold." He would be shocked to see the costumes in which they are now allowed to play—with the highest medical approval.

Third, we doubt that youth is the time to master adult activities. These activities are learned readily and well when the need is urgent but awkwardly and imperfectly when the need is remote.

Fourth, adult activities change so rapidly that it is difficult to anticipate what they will be a generation hence. Our fathers were taught how to curry horses and found themselves tinkering with automobiles. We taught pacifism to a whole generation of young people who then had to fight a war. It is difficult to foresee now what activities, if any, an atomic age will require.

Fifth, out of the welter of adult activities, some selection is necessary. This selection is usually based on frequency of occurrence. Once this criterion is explicitly recognized, it is obviously unsatisfactory. *Swearing* occurs more frequently than *getting married*, but it should hardly be given educational preference for that reason.

One comes back ultimately to a judgment that some activities are more important than others. Why are they important? Not just because people now engage in them but for some other reason which "activity analysis" does not explain. If we could find that reason, we should have a different basis for the derivation of educational objectives. The chief conclu-

sion I should like to emphasize at this point is that we are not at liberty to announce any aims or objectives we please merely because they seem good to us at the time. We ought to have some reasoned *basis* from which aims may be derived in a systematic and comprehensive manner.

#### AN ETHICAL BASIS

I have been concerned with the problem of educational objectives for many years, and, after trying every other basis which I have ever seen, I have concluded that the answer must be sought in an ethical theory: a carefully examined set of beliefs about what the essential elements of a good life are and what kinds of behavior are most likely to attain them. To me it is one of the self-evident propositions that valid aims for education must rest upon a careful consideration of what things in life are worth striving for. For schooling, as opposed to education in the broad sense, we may impose some further restriction if it becomes clear that certain educational needs are best served by other agencies than the school, but we must start from some conception of the good life and of the kinds of behavior which are most likely to attain it.

One looks, then, for an ethical theory which will stand critical examination, and one finds, naturally enough, as much disagreement as between conflicting views of education. Almost every ethical theory which has ever been proposed has been prefaced by the well-warranted assertion that all pre-

vious ethical theories have been nothing but a tangle of absurdities and contradictions. In the face of this continuous failure of the human intellect to contrive an ethical theory that will withstand criticism, it would be not only presumptuous but foolish for a simple educator to propose a new one. I note, however, that the ethical philosophers are all wrangling over first principles; they want to find some one ultimate test of what is good. I believe that educators can, and must, by-pass this controversy; for it will obviously never be settled, and meanwhile we have generations of young people to educate and must have some practical, working notion of what is good for them. Since we cannot agree on first principles, I wonder if what we need, as educators, may not be found in some shrewdly conceived secondary principles, namely, in a set of values which will be accepted as good by every school of ethical thought? Let us try it and see.

I hold that the following values are essential elements of a good life:

1. *Life-maintenance*: Sheer physical survival on almost any terms, but preferably on a level at which the organism functions efficiently and comfortably. This value includes the necessities (food, clothing, shelter, etc.) and mental and physical health.

2. *A sense of worth or achievement*: Of amounting to something, of being recognized and accepted, of living up to one's picture of one's self, and of having accomplished something of importance.

3. *Friendly relations with others*: Relations of mutual respect, affection, courtesy, tolerance, etc.

4. *A free society*: A self-governing society

with the maximum of individual liberty that is compatible with effective co-operation.

5. *Aesthetic experience*: A sensitive response to beauty in many forms.

6. *Meaning*: Knowledge, integrated in a view of life which gives orientation, direction, and security.<sup>2</sup>

I do not know anything of ultimate value which cannot be classified under one or more of these headings. I treat "innocent pleasure" or "fun" as a symptom or emotional accompaniment of the attainment of a wide range of values. Sports would then lie under the first value and most conversation under the third. If the "fun" is not connected with the attainment of any of these values, I should be rather suspicious of it. At least, I should not regard it as of any great importance in education. A complex act such as procreation has obvious bearings on several values: It ministers to the preservation of life and health (Value 1); it affords the possibility of achieving a completely satisfying relationship with another person (Value 3); and it can be an aesthetic experience (Value 5).

I believe that these six values include, in one way or another, everything that can reasonably be asserted to be good for man. Attaining them in reasonable measure constitutes happiness, or the good life. Serious deprivation of any one of them makes the good life impossible to that extent. Their balanced attainment enables a

<sup>2</sup> These values and a suggested evaluation program based on them are found in the following article: Paul B. Diederich, "Design for a Comprehensive Evaluation Program," *School Review*, LVIII (April, 1950), 225-32.

man to reach his highest development, and that development, in turn, enables him to reach these goals ever more completely. Progress toward these goals, in fact, is what we mean by "development"—a term which is both one-sided and vaguely defined in the classical view of education. Good conduct is that which increases the chances of attaining these values, both individually and collectively. Bad conduct is that which decreases the chances of attaining them.

The discerning reader will recognize in this list the three values which are traditionally regarded as supreme and three additional values. "Goodness" appears as "friendly relations with others"; it is also a component of "a sense of worth or achievement"; and, in a larger sense, it is behavior consistent with the attainment of any of my six values. I prefer not to use the old term, "goodness," because my classification of values is an attempt to discover and to state what is good, and it comes as something of a shock to say "Goodness is good," or "It is good to be good." I know that there is bound to be some circularity in all ethical reasoning, but it need not be quite so blatant.

The other two supreme values in the traditional classification, "beauty" and "truth," are retained without substantial alteration as "aesthetic experience" and "meaning."

Then come three additional values which may be disputed. Some of my critics hold that "life" itself is not a value; it is only a necessary condition

for the attainment of all other values. I believe that these critics are mistaken. In any case, it is handy to have some central concept to which to relate the manifold life-maintaining activities to which we obviously do attach value and to which I can see no theoretical objection. On a blustery cold day, for example, I value having a roof over my head. I refuse to classify this sentiment under "aesthetic experience," because my roof is not a pretty one, and my experience would have more of the aesthetic quality if I stood, like Lear, exposed to the elements. I also value having something to eat, and not merely because it tastes good (that I classify under "aesthetic experience"), but also because my body requires it. I also prefer not having a toothache to having a toothache and not having a neurosis to having one, and I cannot view with any equanimity the prospect of being blown up by an atomic bomb. We need some central value to which we can relate all these sentiments, and the most general one I can contrive is the maintenance of life. I may add, as a footnote, that for some years I called this value "health," but it never suggested the right things to my students. I was thinking chiefly of food, clothing, and shelter, while they were thinking of vitamin pills and bending exercises.

The second new value in my list is "a sense of worth or achievement." The necessity for a basic and well-grounded self-esteem, a sense of amounting to something, of living up

to one's standards, and of being recognized and accepted by one's social group, is obvious—especially in view of the findings of the clinical psychologists. This drive appears to be one of the central forces in personality development. I added the "sense of achievement" because this is the source of a large part of our "sense of worth," especially in late adolescence and adult life. It also makes a place for the legitimate satisfactions derived from our work, which occupies so large a part of our waking hours. I get a great deal of satisfaction from my work, and so do most of the men whom I respect. It is hard to classify this satisfaction under other values. Since I am a professor, my work might be regarded as being directed toward the discovery and propagation of truth; hence, the satisfaction attaching to it should be classified under that value. I am not unacquainted with the satisfaction of discovering and communicating "truth"—or, at any rate, meaningful ideas—but I must confess that this particular satisfaction is relatively rare in my work, and is not at all the same thing as the normal satisfaction of getting a useful and necessary job done reasonably well. It is clear, also, that this satisfaction is to be distinguished from the satisfaction of being paid and, thus, from those values which I have classified under the maintenance of life. Those persons who work only for the pay check do not experience the "sense of achievement" to which I have reference. Since work occupies so large a place in the lives of all of us, it

would be unfortunate if the value properly associated with it were not recognized.

This recognition is all the more necessary because its place has been usurped in our time by a perversion of this value which has been called "the bitch goddess of success." Far too many of our people want to "get to the top," over the prostrate bodies of those who stand in their way, simply for the sake of getting to the top. Obviously, this is a self-defeating ideal, for only one man can be at the top in any given line, and the ambitious young man "on the make" is certainly a nuisance and a peril to all the rest of us. I am glad to observe that, in the present generation of college students, such young men are easily detected and are given a sly kick in the pants whenever the opportunity presents itself. I hope that the Horatio Alger ideal of "success" is passing, but if the false gods are to leave the minds of our students, the true gods must appear. In connection with work, the true ideal seems to me to be a sense of achievement.

The third new value in my list, "a free society," is easily defended among people who are committed to democratic institutions, but it may be attacked on the ground that it is not universal; that, in some circumstances, a society may find it better to be ruled than to rule itself. After a long, fruitless struggle to defend my list of values as valid for all men, everywhere, at all times, I have decided to yield on this point. I still have an

underlying conviction that, at the level of generality at which major values *must* be stated if they are to have any directive power, they come close to being universal, but why argue about it? I have caught myself wasting valuable time arguing that, if the Dobu islanders did not attain these values in some form or other, they would suffer, but it suddenly occurred to me that the educational objectives of the Dobu islanders were no concern of mine. For young Americans of the present generation, the value of "a free society" can hardly be contested.

#### VALIDATING CRITERIA

I have set forth at some length in another place<sup>3</sup> the criteria by which my major values may be justified. To summarize: They are valuable as ends in themselves apart from anything else which they may help one to achieve. They are consistent with a tenable view of the nature of man and with a tenable view of the nature of the physical and social environment. They are consistent with one another. They are attainable. They are capable of indefinite expansion in level of attainment. They are innocent, in that attainment by one person does not involve the deprivation of another. They are necessary, in that deprivation of any one of them involves suffering and degeneration. They are few enough to be easily remembered but detailed enough to suggest courses of

action. And, until anyone proves the contrary, they are exhaustive, at least as a common core of values which can be accepted by every school of ethical thought.

In addition to these criteria, the six values are justified by the fact that they are based on the same intellectual processes on which the most certain of our conclusions depend, namely, observation, comparison, analysis, judgment, and classification. Life itself affords a huge laboratory. We see a man writhing and howling with pain. We see him later in good health. We must distrust the evidence of all sense and judgment not to take the second state as better than the first. Similarly, we see a man having trouble with his wife, while a second is happily married. We have to conclude, by every sort of consequence, that the second is better off than the first in this respect. We saw what happened to the unemployed during the depression, when every possibility of a sense of achievement was denied them, and we had to conclude that, on the average, the results were not good. I am not trying to prove that the scientist in his laboratory comes to exactly this sort of conclusion (although I suspect the line would be hard to draw in some cases), but I do contend that the kind of *thinking* on which a sound value judgment is based is exactly the same as that on which a sound scientific judgment is based. I do not see why we should have any less confidence in conclusions drawn on the basis of careful

<sup>3</sup> Paul B. Diederich, "General Objectives of Education," *Elementary School Journal*, XLV (April, 1945), 436-43.



analysis and comparison of the data which life affords than in conclusions drawn on the basis of exactly similar operations in a laboratory.

Please understand that I do not contend that all our casual ethical judgments are of this order. Most of them are probably dictated by irrational forces far below the level of consciousness. But I believe the ethical philosopher, classifying just those major values which seem most essential to human life, can work out a list in which we can have as much confidence as we can have in most of the conclusions of scientific research. Does anyone seriously doubt that the six things I have mentioned are good for people? Anyone, of course, can think of exceptional cases, but what we want here is a basis for the broad strategy of education—something which holds good in the mass and on the average. Our stake in this matter is similar to that of the physician. When he sees a man in pain, he does not stop to ask whether this may not be the noblest state which man can attain. He proceeds upon the fairly safe assumption that health is better than sickness. Similarly, the educator will not go far wrong in assuming that life is preferable to death, love to hate, achievement to failure, freedom to slavery, beauty to ugliness, and truth

to error. Whatever refinements in our conception of these values the ethical philosophers may work out, it is highly probable that the durable goods of life lie under these headings.

Once these values are accepted, it is fairly easy to discover what attitudes, habits, knowledge, and skills increase the chances of attaining them. These should be regarded not only as educational objectives but as virtues. Good conduct means doing the things which they imply, and the good man is one who does them habitually and well. They are good because the more they are practiced by everyone, the better are everyone's chances of attaining a good life. Deviations from them hurt not only the individual but all members of his society. Unless most people practice them most of the time, none of us can attain a good life. Our moral obligation as teachers is to see to it that all the children of all our people learn to behave in these ways and to understand why it is imperative that they do so. This attitude may seem dogmatic and even ominous in view of the prevailing *laissez faire* attitude toward objectives, but, until we teachers have an ethical theory so convincing to us that we live by it personally and believe it with religious intensity, our objectives are not likely to influence what we teach.



## AN EXPERIENCE IN HELPING COLLEGE STUDENTS LEARN

JOHN WITHALL  
*University of Delaware*



### THE TEACHER'S ROLE

A CARDINAL PRINCIPLE of the educative process that is frequently ignored is the dictum that *only* the learner can do the learning. All the teacher can really do is to assist the learner to learn. The teacher may best fulfil his facilitating role by (1) helping the learner to structure the problem and situation confronting him as clearly and adequately as possible; (2) helping the learner to identify worth-while courses of action for resolving or attacking the problem; (3) presenting data that the learner can use; and (4)—most important of all—creating a social-emotional climate (no mean task, incidentally) that will release the learner emotionally and intellectually, both to consider alternative courses of action and to choose behavior that will help him attack and resolve the problem in a manner which is efficient, satisfying to him, and acceptable to society. This responsibility of the teacher can be implemented in terms of some of the well-known, guiding principles of educational psychology, that is, relating what is to be learned to the needs and goals of the

learner, starting at the point where the learner is at present, and encouraging him to participate in defining and setting up his learning objectives.

### AN ACTUAL CLASSROOM EXPERIENCE

Guided by this notion of being a facilitator of learning, the writer conducted a six-week, six-credit course in basic human development in the School of Education at the University of Delaware during the summer of 1950. This course is required of all school nurses and of all undergraduates in education. It also happens to be a favorite elective of experienced teachers. There were sixty-eight individuals in the class. The majority of these students were veteran teachers whose experience ranged from four to thirty years in the classroom. The remainder of the class was made up of eight school nurses and a half-dozen undergraduates with no teaching experience.

*Identifying the learners' expectancies.*—In order effectively to facilitate learning, the writer has found it useful to try to discover at the outset the expectancies of the learners regarding

the learning experience. These expectations are sought in the first few meetings of the class. The verbalized expectations of the learners usually represent differing levels of aspiration, clarity, and sophistication. They tend to be stated as ideas, information, concepts, or principles that the students hope to acquire from the course. Less frequently there may be a statement of expectations in terms of experiences or changed attitudes that are sought and desired. In this particular course, the class's expectations—individual and collective—were asked for and drawn out by the instructor during the entire first class meeting, which lasted two and a half hours, excluding the mid-point recess.

In response to the query, "What do you individually and as a class expect and want this course to encompass?" twelve large areas of interest and concern were identified during the discussion at the opening class session. These areas comprised the following statements and questions, which were listed on the blackboard as the members of the class gave them:

1. As teachers, we wish to understand what basic needs, interests, and drives influence the child's behavior and growth.
2. What procedures or techniques can be used to cope with problems presented by the facts of child development?
3. How can we capitalize on the facts of child development?
4. We want to develop some understanding of the development of the child from birth to six years.
5. What is the influence of environment and heredity on a child's development?
6. We want to understand how the child's

personality and basic attitudes begin to form at the moment of delivery.

7. How do group life and interaction influence an individual's growth and development?

8. What is the role of the parents in the child's development?

9. How can we best help the child to express himself?

10. How do handicaps, whether physical or mental, influence children's behavior?

11. How can tests and measurements be used to facilitate learning?

12. What are the major factors that influence personality development?

Later on in the course, we devoted some time to an examination and assessment of these twelve broad areas and of the extent to which we had attained a deeper understanding and appreciation of the material encompassed by them. The consensus was that each of the areas, up until that time, had been dealt with, though some, of course, in greater detail than others. It was also agreed that we were driving in the direction of further mastery of the principles, concepts, and information subsumed under each topic.

*Delineating bases for assessing student achievement.*—During the first week of the course, the procedure and requirements of the class from the instructor's point of view were outlined to the group. This structuring involved stating the bases for the final assessment of each individual's achievement for the term. The requirements included a case study of a child, which was to be submitted to the instructor by the end of the fourth week of the six-week session; a writ-

ten, objective-type examination in the fifth week; a brief written evaluation of the course, of the instructor, and of the student's own progress and achievement in the class. The evaluation was scheduled to be submitted three days before the end of the term. In addition, résumés of reading, both assigned and voluntary, were to be handed in at the end of each week.

Just as it seems important to become aware of the learners' expectations with respect to the course, so it is equally important that the learners know precisely what work assignments will be required and how their achievement will be evaluated by the instructor. On the one hand, the airing of the learners' expectancies gives them an opportunity to help determine the content of the course. On the other hand, a clear statement of the work which will be required and of the assessment procedures which will be used helps give them a sense of security that seems to be conducive to greater learning from the experiences and ideas to which they are exposed during the course.

*Class experiences and procedure.*—

At the outset, the instructor began scheduling ten-minute interviews with each student. The purpose of these interviews was to help the instructor see his students as individuals rather than as names on a class list and to help him achieve this appreciation as early in the term as feasible.

Each class session consisted, almost in its entirety, in a discussion oriented around questions raised by members

of the class in reference to their current reading or experiences in teaching. The showing of films was spaced at three-day intervals during the term. These films included selections from the Gesell series dealing with early childhood development; "This Is Robert," a film concerned with the growth and emotional problems of a child over a period of about five years from age two to seven; a short film entitled "Shy Guy," dealing with the difficulties of an adolescent who moves into a new school and a new community; a documentary film entitled "The Quiet One," showing the genesis and causes of the serious emotional disturbance of a boy who had to be institutionalized; and several other films covering the period from infancy through adolescence.

In addition, the instructor arranged a visit to the near-by institution for emotionally disturbed and physically or mentally handicapped children. The purpose of this visit was to drive home to the school teachers and nurses in the class the fact that the educative principles that they had identified as valuable for helping children in school to develop into adjusting and integrating individuals were the self-same principles that guided the work of the persons who tried to help handicapped and emotionally disturbed children. Several resource persons from a near-by city were invited to meet with the class. These persons, who were actively engaged in school work, included the director of guidance of the city's school system,

the educational director of the near-by health center, and the school psychologist of the city's school system.

Rather early in the term, the instructor staged a controlled experiment and demonstration emphasizing the influence of the social climate in a classroom upon the learning process. The demonstration-experiment involved two groups of ten students, each selected through random sampling. Each group, in turn, without the other's being present, was taught a short lesson in general science in the presence of the remaining forty-eight members of the class. In the two situations, *A* and *B*, the instructor utilized different methods of procedure in so far as language and attitude were concerned. Situation *A* involved a teacher-centered classroom procedure, requiring the use of dominative, reproving, and teacher-assertive behaviors. Situation *B* represented a learner-centered classroom, with the teacher employing learner-supportive, acceptant, and problem-centered behaviors. As one seasoned teacher put it:

No one could ever have convinced me that what a teacher says or does can intimidate the students to any great extent. But I was in the teacher-centered group and saw and experienced genuine intimidation even though I knew this was an experiment being carried out on us.

*Creating a social-emotional climate conducive to learning.*—Throughout the course, the instructor sought to create the kind of classroom climate that would enable the learners to bring most of their energies and re-

sources to bear on the objective problems confronting them. The basic principle by which the instructor guided his efforts was the tenet subscribed to by most workers who attempt to help people change their behavior and attitudes (psychologists, psychiatrists, psychotherapists, and educators), that is, help the changee to feel adequate and secure by avoiding rejecting, censuring, or dominative behavior and by demonstrating a readiness to accept the changee as he is and to entertain all the ideas and attitudes he may choose to express.

This acceptant, non-threatening, objective, non-domineering attitude on the part of the person who hopes to facilitate changes in behavior and attitudes has been, and may be, described in innumerable ways. The instructor sought to implement this attitude in the classroom by (1) trying to entertain all and any ideas and opinions verbalized without judging them, but, instead, examining them by raising problem-structuring, non-leading questions; (2) entertaining questions raised by members of the class and tossing them back to the group for discussion, analysis, and resolution. When differences of opinion occurred in discussions, the instructor verbalized as impartially and as adequately as possible both sides of the argument as it had been stated by the protagonists. He encouraged those students who were *not* involved emotionally in the disagreement to examine the assumptions and premises underlying each side of the case, in

order to help the arguers to re-examine their own and their opponents' points of view. Whenever the instructor's point of view was called into question or actually attacked, he sought to remain as problem-oriented as possible and to accept the criticism or attack as directed at his perception of the problem or data rather than at him personally. (It is really astonishing how rapidly the heat of a psychological attacker cools when the object of his attack shows a genuine willingness to entertain the strictures as worthy of careful examination and as possessing some validity.)

The other principle guiding the instructor throughout the course, besides that of avoiding psychologically threatening behaviors vis-à-vis the learners, was the corollary principle which entails, operationally, conveying to the changee the idea that the only changes that may be brought about in him will be those which he himself chooses to make.

In line with these fundamental principles, the instructor sought to utilize verbal behaviors that encouraged the learners; that demonstrated a willingness to accept their ideas and attitudes without pronouncing judgment on them; and that focused the attention and concern of the learners on the concrete issues arising from their interaction with books, films, their peers, and their own frame of reference. The satisfied and relatively enthusiastic comments of the students in their written evaluations with regard to their feeling of ease and their

freedom to speak up in class without fear of being ridiculed or battled down suggest that the climate believed to be more conducive to learning was approximated.

*Self-evaluations and evaluations of the course by students.*—The self-evaluations and evaluations of the course were submitted by each member of the class about the fifth week of the term. They were oriented toward the four following questions which the instructor presented to the class as a framework:

1. What principles, ideas, or attitudes that will help me in working with children did I gain from this course?
2. What principles, ideas, or attitudes did I want to learn from this course but did not?
3. What changes in course procedure and content would I have made if I had been in charge?
4. What mark do I think I have earned by my effort during the term?

It is of considerable interest to note that, of the sixty-eight evaluations submitted to the instructor by members of the class, forty-two set marks for themselves which, on the basis of the term examination and the instructor's rating of the case study that each had submitted, were precisely the marks they had earned, or, in a few instances, were inferior to the marks they had earned. Eleven students stated that they felt they had earned and had achieved an A in their work; of these, five certainly merited and had earned the mark. Forty-seven students believed they had earned and

attained a B in their work; twenty-seven of these deserved and merited this mark, and three of those who asked for B's had earned A's; the remaining students merited C's. Of the ten students who asked for C's, seven merited them, and three actually earned D's. There were no failures asked for and none merited.

#### CONCLUSION

The procedure and organization of this class represent an attempt by the instructor to implement the basic assumption that ought to underlie the teaching process, that is, the teacher's major responsibility is to be a *facilitator of the students' learning*. The responsibility can either be met effectively or be side-stepped by a wishy-washy *laissez faire* methodology. Meeting the responsibility effectively involves positive action by the teacher. This includes helping to

structure the learning situation and problem as adequately as possible; helping the learners to identify worthwhile courses of action and behavior in moving toward their objectives; giving information as the need arises; and, most important of all, creating a social-emotional climate which releases the learners emotionally and intellectually to consider in an objective fashion the problem and choices of action open to them in resolving the problem.

Actually, this is nothing new. I am merely restating the basic principles of educational psychology mentioned in my opening paragraph. That is, relate what is to be learned to the needs and interests of the learners; start at the point at which the learner is; and *encourage* the learner, in an atmosphere conducive to objectivity, to participate in defining and determining the learning objectives.



## WHY SOME ABLE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES DO NOT GO TO COLLEGE

LEROY E. BARBER

*Academy High School, Erie, Pennsylvania*



MANY HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES possessed of college ability do not go to college. An illuminating study of this situation was made by Helen B. Goetsch, who followed up Milwaukee high-school graduates of February and June, 1937, and February, 1938, whose intelligence quotients were 117 and higher. She found:

At the time the follow-up study was made, only 35 per cent of these capable boys and girls were full-time college students, 4 per cent were part-time college students, 19 per cent were in minor schools, and 42 per cent were not in school at all.<sup>1</sup>

Goetsch partitioned her cases according to eight levels of parental income and showed a decided relationship between economic status and college-going. Her study was definitely focused on the financial factor and did not involve search for other barriers to the higher education of able youth. Other researches have been made with the same emphasis and similar findings.

In contrast, Havighurst has claimed that his studies in several Midwestern communities show lack of motivation to be the main reason why many able

youth do not go to college, that the "motivational barrier is at least as important as the economic barrier."<sup>2</sup> This claim is challenging. Havighurst cites individual illustrations of his point but does not present data supporting his generalization.

These circumstances of insufficient knowledge and of doubt seemed to justify a direct inquiry, unencumbered by prejudgments or even hypotheses, into the reasons why some able youth do not go to college. The questionnaire could hardly be a sufficiently reliable or penetrating instrument for such an investigation. The better chance to obtain the truth seemed to lie in the study of individual cases through face-to-face interviews; observations of the family, home, and job situations in each case; and study of high-school records and other pertinent evidence.

### THE PRESENT STUDY

Early in 1949 the writer canvassed the 1948 graduates of the three academic high schools of his own city, Erie, Pennsylvania. Of the 763 gradu-

<sup>1</sup> Helen B. Goetsch, "Relation of Parental Income to College Opportunity," *School Review*, XLVIII (January, 1940), 26.

<sup>2</sup> Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Implications of the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education," *School and Society*, LXVII (April 3, 1948), 259.

ates, 183 had intelligence quotients of 115 or higher and were assumed to have the ability to do college work. Fifty-six of these 183 had entered college. Thus, approximately three out of ten of these good college risks went to college. Nine of the remaining 127 had moved out of the city and could not be reached. Thus, it cannot be said with certainty that none of them had entered college.

However, 118 were definitely known not to have entered college. Of these, 111 (69 per cent of whom were girls and 31 per cent boys) are included in this study of reasons for not going to college. Five of the seven members omitted were in the armed forces, one married graduate was living outside the city, and one girl was in training in New York.

The high-school scholarship records of these 111 cases showed that 52 per cent graduated in the upper third of their classes, 33 per cent in the middle third, and 15 per cent in the lower third. On the basis of ability, all should have graduated in the upper third. In arriving at conclusions in the analysis for each of these youth, due consideration was given to his high-school record.

During the period from May to August, 1949—approximately a year after their high-school graduation—the writer interviewed each of these graduates. Most of them were visited in their homes, but a few were met at their places of work. The interviewer introduced himself by name and as a teacher in one of the Erie high schools and then said: "I have been working

on a survey of last year's class to determine why some of you with good records have not gone to college. Would you be willing to answer a few questions about your reasons for not going?"

Consent was readily given in every instance. The writer feels that the conversations were friendly and that his questions were answered frankly and without reservations. Parents and other members of the family were sometimes present during the interview and occasionally participated in the discussion.

The interview was built around a schedule consisting of about seventeen questions covering such points as these:

Which course did you follow in high school?

Why did you select this course?

How did your parents feel about your selection?

When did you decide that you were not going to college?

What part did your parents play in your decision not to go to college?

What is your attitude concerning a college education?

What schooling did your parents have?

What is your father's (mother's) job?

What caused you to decide that you would not attend college?

Each of the responses, together with all other information concerning the graduate, was taken into consideration in the compilation of the summary, which was written shortly after the interview had ended.

#### THE RESULTS

While tabulations of the responses to the various questions were made,

the heart of the study is revealed in the summation shown in Table 1. This was based on the results of the entire interview and takes into account all that the subject said, all that his parents said, the graduate's physical environment, and his school record.

tivities since graduation, his remarks in the interview, and all else that the writer knew or observed about him.

For each of the 111 subjects, a "chief reason" was designated; for 66, a "second most important reason" became evident; for 18, a "third most

TABLE 1  
REASONS WHY 111 ABLE HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES DID NOT ENTER COLLEGE

REASON	GRADUATES CITING AS CHIEF REASON		NUMBER OF GRADUATES CITING AS—		TOTAL	
	Number	Per Cent	Second Most Important Reason	Third Most Important Reason	Number	Per Cent
Lack of finances.....	38	34	14	4	56	50
Lack of academic interests.....	22	20	18	2	42	38
Lack of serious purpose.....	14	12	5	1	20	18
Lack of college requirements.....	1	1	2	1	4	4
Preference for work experience.....	16	13	11	.....	27	24
Preference for more challenging work.....	4	4	2	.....	6	5
Preference for nursing.....	2	2	2	.....	4	4
Preference for entering business with father.....	1	1	1	.....	2	2
Preference for engagement or marriage.....	4	4	3	3	10	9
Preference for freedom from parental control.....	.....	.....	3	5	8	7
Feeling that marks were too low.....	1	1	1	1	3	3
Feeling of social inferiority.....	1	1	1	.....	2	2
Feeling that sister should receive degree first.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	1
Indecision.....	3	3	3	1	7	6
Personal illness.....	2	2	.....	.....	2	2
Illness at home.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	1
Total.....	111	100	66	18	195	*

\* The total of this column would be more than 100 per cent because more than one reason applied in some cases.

That the making of such a summary was a somewhat subjective process cannot be denied. It involved the thoughtful weighing of the evidence in each case and the establishment of suitable categories. For such a category as "Lack of serious purpose," it is patently clear that no subject would state such a reason for his not entering college. It had to be deduced from the individual's high-school record, his ac-

important reason." Here again, it was the interviewer's judgment which ascertained the existence of more than one reason, together with the relative importance of the two or three found.

Study of Table 1 shows the economic factor, "Lack of finances," to be the reason appearing with highest frequency. If, however, one groups together as "motivational" the reasons listed as "Lack of academic interests,"

"Lack of serious purpose," and the several designated as "Preference for . . ." he finds them applying to 56 per cent of the cases as "chief reason," in comparison with the 34 per cent for whom "Lack of finances" was assigned as "chief reason."

Should the findings of Table 1 occasion surprise? To one who is familiar with the major researches into the nature, problems, attitudes, and interests of adolescent youth and who has as friend and counselor become truly acquainted with boys and girls, the answer is "no." For many bright boys and girls, academic interests are subordinate to their physical, or practical, interests. Years of book study do not appeal to them. A certain percentage of high-school graduates lack serious purpose. They have grown up without discipline, shunning responsibility for the productive use of their talents. Finally, to many high-school Seniors, college looms up as four long years of denial and deferment—postponement of marriage, of emancipation from parental control, and of getting started in a vocation and in financial independence. College is a prolongation of infancy, and such an expenditure of the years runs counter to some fundamental urges of the post-adolescent.

#### WHAT TO DO ABOUT IT

While these factors are understandable, we cannot accept their unhindered operation. The welfare of our society demands effective development and employment of our human resources. Finding our most gifted children and training them according

to their talents is an obligation which rests squarely on school and family. The following practical suggestions are offered, in view of the findings of this research:

1. *Early diagnosis to discover pupils of college ability.* Under the present system of credits and sequences in Pennsylvania, as perhaps in most states, this time should not be postponed beyond the ninth year of high school. Ample evidence exists to show that diagnosis for college aptitude can be made at least this early.

2. *Motivational counseling.* The high frequency of "lack of academic interest" and "lack of serious purpose" as reasons for not going to college plainly suggest the great need for motivational counseling. How to induce these youth to use their superior abilities maximally is certainly a problem when we realize that only 52 per cent were graduated in the upper third of their classes.

3. *Early contacts with parents and pupils* to induce them to overcome economic barriers where they exist. Long-time family planning may often offset this disadvantage. The school should actively promote this planning for a child of high ability.

4. *Adoption of the plan for college scholarship aid from the federal government.* Such a plan would help materially to surmount the economic barrier. It must be remembered, however, that this study shows other barriers than the economic to exist in notable degree. Money can be no substitute for the self-discipline which many youth need.

## CORE PROGRAMS IN WASHINGTON STATE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

LEWIE W. BURNETT  
*George Washington University*



### THE CORE CURRICULUM

THE ROLE of the junior high school as an exploratory institution for helping youth adjust to the differing developmental experiences of the elementary school and the high school has received much comment in recent years. Often, a core program has been suggested as the best avenue for attaining the desired transitions.

A true core curriculum attacks the problems common to all youth and builds its experiences directly on the needs and interests of youth. It is a functional approach to harmonizing the concerns of youth, on the one hand, with the demands of society, on the other, without unduly emphasizing one or neglecting the other.

Ordinarily, the core curriculum organizes learning activities without reference to conventional subject lines, absorbs most of the home-room and guidance functions, uses teacher-student planning extensively, and utilizes several periods of the school day. Thus, it operates in exact contrast to the traditional separate-subject, departmentalized curriculum and is actually removed from either the curriculum which is centered entirely in the interests of youth or the two-subject,

broad-fields, or correlated, curriculum.

### THE STUDY

An attempt has been made, through correspondence and personal interviews, to survey the curricular patterns existing in the 94 junior high schools of the state of Washington. Responses from 54 schools were received. These schools represent a total of 27,214 students, or a little more than 65 per cent of all junior high school students in the state.<sup>1</sup> Each junior high school principal was asked to forward a copy of his schedule of classes, showing teacher assignments, and to answer two questions: "(1) Is there a trend in your junior high school toward a core program?" "(2) What is your personal thinking about such a trend?"

#### *Extent of trend toward core program.*

—Forty-six schools reported a trend toward a core program; four, a trend away from it; and four were moving in

<sup>1</sup> According to the figures for the 1948-49 school year, 41,738 children in the state of Washington attend junior high schools; 44,183 children, or 51.4 per cent of the total number of children in Grades VII through IX, attend the two upper grades of eight-grade elementary schools and the first year of four-year high schools.



neither direction. Thirty-nine of the principals were definitely favorable toward the trend; five were opposed; and ten stated that they could not decide without further study.

*Reasons for favoring core program.*—The thirty-nine principals favoring the core program centered their support in the following five points.

1. It provides better opportunities for unit-teaching and problem-solving experiences.
2. It promotes better home-room guidance services.
3. It decreases the shuttling-around of students and thus results in greater security for the students.
4. It insures giving attention to individual student problems, rather than covering just subject-matter material.
5. It reduces negativism and antagonism toward the school program.

One principal claimed that student enthusiasm for the new program resulted in a marked decrease in truancy and in excused absences based on illness. Another principal, who had tried the core curriculum for four years, reported that, each year, discipline problems were fewer, morale was higher, and students responded better to democratic procedures. A third principal said, "Every teacher in our program is primarily a home-room guidance teacher and secondarily a subject-matter specialist."

*Reasons for opposing core program.*—In opposition, one principal wrote that his school found that "adolescents need to change classes for each subject." Another dropped the core curriculum because "my teachers did

not like it." A third principal desisted because "it cost too much and required too much space." A fourth complained that "it was too difficult to schedule." The fifth principal feared it because it provided "a wonderful opportunity to create dissension and lack of unity in the staff."

*Position of neutrality.*—The ten neutral principals seemed most concerned about the quality of teachers. Several of them stated that any curriculum works only as well as the teachers' capacities for promoting it. They questioned the assumption that good teachers for a core curriculum are available. One principal openly expressed doubt that experienced separate-subject teachers would change to teaching in a core-centered system and questioned whether teacher-education institutions were preparing beginners for this responsibility. This last criticism focuses a sharp challenge to all pre-service and in-service programs of teacher education.

*Study of class schedules.*—A check of the class schedules of the fifty-four schools reveals that many are in the process of change. For example, several have inaugurated half-day home-room programs for Grade VII but as yet have done nothing about altering the traditional schedule for Grade IX. Fifteen different schedules operate in the fifty-four schools, ranging from complete half-day core programs for all three grades in two schools to single-period scheduling for all grades in sixteen schools. Grade programs disclose that thirty-eight schools have

a definite block of time scheduled for Grade VII, thirty-one for Grade VIII, and thirteen for Grade IX. Furthermore, in these schools the average number of periods scheduled with the core teacher for Grade VII is 2.75, whereas it drops to 2.42 and 2.15 for Grades VIII and IX, respectively.

The current tendency in most of the schools is to include three periods, or a half-day, for Grade VII, two periods for Grade VIII, and straight departmentalization for Grade IX. However, several principals referred to the changes as experimental and expressed the intention of making the half-day core characteristic of all three grades as rapidly as is feasible. Twelve of the sixteen schools that still follow the single-period schedules already have two or three teachers in each building experimenting with longer blocks of time for Grade VII, with the possibility of moving in that direction if results prove satisfactory.

*Subject combinations.*—Since most of these changes have occurred during the past five years, it is understandable why many of the principals cautiously refer to their programs as "block time" rather than core programs. Principals quickly see the guidance possibilities when a class spends two or three periods with one teacher, but they frankly admit the need for "selling" experienced teachers on the advantages of such programming. Consequently, to encourage teacher experimentation, some schools have permitted teachers to select their own subject areas as the

starting point for this block of time. While the combination of social studies and language arts is the most typical, and science and health are often added in the half-day block, any combination is to be expected in schools in which the teachers decide on the combinations. One teacher may choose science and English; his colleague may select English and art. This, then, is only one person teaching the same pupils two subjects and, obviously, in no way approaches a true core program. Although a block-time arrangement may be the necessary beginning of an eventual core program, the two should not be confused. Few of the thirty-nine schools that are moving into a core-centered program have progressed far enough to list such areas as "social living" in place of the conventional subjects. Most of them still list the teacher for three subjects, for example, English, social studies, and mathematics.

*Schedules of teachers.*—Indeed, a careful review of the teaching schedules of the 1,098 teachers working in the 54 schools shows that only 108 teachers have a half-day block-time assignment; that 204 are each responsible for three or four different subjects but that their teaching is not confined to one group of pupils; that 390 each give instruction in only two different subjects, but that, again, they teach several sets of children without any attempt at correlation. The other 396 teachers are straight, single-subject teachers, mostly in the areas of music, social studies, home economics,

mathematics, industrial arts, physical education, language arts, fine arts, and science. Almost 40 per cent of the 390 two-subject teachers are combining language arts and social studies. The other most frequent combinations are health and physical education, mathematics and science, mathematics and language arts, and mathematics and social studies.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the conclusion may be drawn that the majority of junior high school administrators in the state of Washington are actively promoting a change from separate-subject departmentalization to core units covering large blocks of time. Some schools have made dramatic curricular revisions in that direction during the past five years. Other schools are moving more slowly into simple block-time arrangements to improve home-room guidance. In all cases, the progression advances only as teachers grasp the significances and are willing to experiment.

The whole program of teacher education, both pre-service and in-service training, must help teachers to under-

stand the basic skills and concepts of core-centered teaching. The thirty-nine principals working hardest to effect the core-centered program in the state of Washington assert that the three great needs of junior high school teachers are an understanding of adolescents and the ability to work with them, the techniques of guidance and home-room leadership, and a balanced background of general education, with the ability to teach in several subject fields.

These principals view the major obstacles to forward progress in the core trend as being basically human ones. They feel that these obstacles are: (1) self-satisfied teachers who are either too lazy to experiment with the new or too fearful of the possible insecurity that might result from any change; (2) self-satisfied principals who support departmentalization because it is established and easier to continue; (3) certain self-satisfied college professors with vested class interests who insist that they know more about what is good for the junior high schools than do the educational leaders who are actually operating the schools.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

### II. THE SUBJECT FIELDS



THE SAME GROUPING of subject fields is being followed for the lists of references in the February and March numbers of the *School Review* as has been used in the cycles of lists published during 1933-50, inclusive. The concept of "instruction" is also the same and includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study and supervision, and measurement. In each subject field the list includes items published during a period of approximately twelve months since the preparation of the list appearing last year.

#### ENGLISH<sup>1</sup>

DORA V. SMITH

*University of Minnesota*

74. ALLEN, HAROLD B. "Mass Pressure on Radio and Journalism," *English Journal*, XXXVIII (October, 1949), 447-53.

Gives needed information concerning pressures to which reader and listener should be alert in the study of propaganda.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 364 ("Dramatics in the Secondary School"), Item 375 (Lieberman), and Item 391 (Trout) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1950, number of the *School Review*; and Item 444 (Gray) in the October, 1950, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

75. AUSTIN, TEXAS, PUBLIC SCHOOLS. "Living and Laughing: A Language Arts Program for Grade Seven." Austin Public Schools Curriculum Bulletin No. J110-7. Austin, Texas: Board of Education, 1949. Pp. vi+270 (mimeographed).

Reveals current thinking concerning integrated language-arts programs in twelve units for Grade VII.

76. BRATTIG, ELIZABETH V. "Classic Comics, Classic or Comic?" *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXI (June, 1949), 5-8. (See also *Education Digest*, XV [October, 1949], 6-7.)

Shows how one teacher taught literary appreciation by comparing George Eliot's *Silas Marner* with the comic-book version of it.

77. BROOKS, ALICE R. "Integrating Books and Reading with Adolescent Tasks," *School Review*, LVIII (April, 1950), 211-19.

Presents under each of Havighurst's developmental tasks of youth an annotated list of books bearing upon it.

78. BURTON, DWIGHT L. "There's Always a Book for You," *English Journal*, XXXVIII (September, 1949), 371-75. Illustrates emphasis upon the social and the human in guiding adolescent reading.

79. CARLSEN, GEORGE ROBERT. "Education for Life Adjustment through English," *Education for Life Adjustment*:

- Its Meaning and Implementation*, pp. 88-109. Edited by HARL R. DOUGLASS. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1950. Demonstrates how English departments can contribute to life-adjustment education.
80. CARLSEN, GEORGE ROBERT. "Contributions of English to Home and Family Living," *Junior College Journal*, XX (December, 1949), 209-17. Gives specific examples of the importance of language and literature to human understanding within the family.
81. CENTRAL NEW YORK SCHOOL STUDY COUNCIL, COMMITTEE ON ENGLISH 12. "A Guide for the Teaching of English." Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press, 1949. Pp. 125 (mimeographed). Describes resource units for twelfth-grade English with underlying curriculum principles set up by the Central New York School Study Council Committee on English 12.
82. CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOLS. "Course of Study in English for Chicago Public High Schools: Grade Nine, First Semester." Resource Units for English 1. Chicago: Department of Instruction and Guidance, Board of Education, 1949. Pp. 104 (mimeographed). Offers carefully planned and detailed units tried out in Chicago.
83. *Curriculum in Intergroup Relations: Case Studies in Instruction for Secondary Schools*. (Reprinted from *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, February, 1949.) Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, Work in Progress Series. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. viii+168. Shows relation of language and literature to the study of intergroup problems.
84. "English," Section D-5 of *Evaluative Criteria*, 1950 Edition, pp. 87-98. Washington: Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, 1950. Presents revised standards for evaluation of programs in secondary-school English.
85. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER (editor). "Projects in Listening: Reports of Classroom Research Activities." Phoenix, Arizona: Office of Research Services, Phoenix Union High Schools and Phoenix College, 1950. Pp. 52 (mimeographed). Offers concrete suggestions for teaching listening in high school.
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88. GERTRUDE LEONORE, SISTER. "Life Adjustment in an English Class," *Catholic Educational Review*, XLVIII (March, 1950), 163-70. Describes helpful methods and the philosophy of life adjustment in an English class in the senior high school.
89. GRAY, WILLIAM S. (editor). *Reading in an Age of Mass Communication*. Report of the Committee on Reading at the Secondary School and College Levels of the National Council of Teachers of English. English Monograph No. 17. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1949. Pp. 108. Contains six articles on the changed role of reading today by Ralph C. Preston, Louise M. Rosenblatt, Lou La Brant, Russell B. Thomas, Robert C. Pooley, and William S. Gray.



90. HALL, ROBERT A. *Leave Your Language Alone!* Ithaca, New York: Linguistica, 1950. Pp. xii+254.  
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91. HAYAKAWA, S. I. "Linguistic Science and the Teaching of Composition," *Etc.: A Review of General Semantics*, VII (Winter, 1950), 97-103.  
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92. HILKERT, ROBERT N. "Language Competencies Required by Occupational Choice," *English Journal*, XXXIX (March, 1950), 137-44.  
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94. HOOK, J. N. *Teaching of High School English*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1950. Pp. vi+466.  
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96. JOHNSON, WENDELL. "Do You Know How To Listen?" *Etc.: A Review of General Semantics*, VII (Autumn, 1949), 3-9.  
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97. KENNY, RITA J., and SCHOFIELD, EDWARD T. "Audio-visual Aids for the English Teacher," *Audio-Visual Guide*, XVI (October, 1949), 29-33; (November, 1949), 7-12.  
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109. SELLERS, ROSE Z. "What Shall We Do for Our Freshmen?" *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXIV (January, 1950), 360-65.  
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115. STEARNS, GERTRUDE B. *English in the Small High School*. Small School in Action Series. Lincoln, Nebraska: Extension Division, University of Nebraska, 1950. Pp. 334.  
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117. TABA, HILDA, and ELKINS, DEBORAH. *With Focus on Human Relations: A Story of an Eighth Grade*. Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, Work in Progress Series. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1950. Pp. x+228.

Reveals the rise of literature in promoting understanding of human relations in the Intergroup Study in Cooperating Schools.

118. THONSEN, LESTER W., and OTHERS (compilers). *Bibliography of Speech Education, Supplement: 1939-48*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1950. Pp. 394. Presents the most comprehensive list available of studies and writing in the field of speech.

119. THORNLEY, WILSON R. "Unlocking Resources of Retarded Students," *English Journal*, XXXIX (June, 1950), 302-6.

Reviews progress of a retarded boy under case-study methods of instruction.

120. TRIGGS, FRANCES, and OTHERS. "The 24 Questions on High School Reading Problems," *Clearing House*, XXIV (October, 1949), 67-74.

Lists twenty-four significant questions in high-school reading with practical answers by four specialists.

121. TUPPER, MARGUERITE R. (compiler). "The Teaching of American Ideals: II. An Annotated Bibliography of Books Related to American Life," *Illinois English Bulletin*, XXXVII (December, 1949), 1-37.

Presents a carefully annotated bibliography of materials found most useful in the Illinois study of American literature.

122. VAN TIL, WILLIAM A., and OTHERS. *Democracy Demands It: A Resource Unit for Intercultural Education in the High School*. Bureau for Intercultural Education Publication Series, Vol. 6.

New York: Harper & Bros., 1950. Pp. viii+118.

Describes a valuable resource unit on intergroup understanding sponsored by teachers of English, social studies, and science.

123. WINETROUT, KENNETH. "Communications," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXI (February, 1950), 87-90.

Presents an illuminating summary of the functions and practices of beginning communications courses in college.

124. ZOLLINGER, MARIAN. "Ninth Grade English and Social Studies Combined Classes: A Progress Report." Portland, Oregon: Portland Public Schools, 1950. Pp. 54 (mimeographed).

Clearly defines techniques, values, and defects of unified programs in Grade IX in Portland, Oregon.

## THE SOCIAL STUDIES\*

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

*University of Chicago and Frances Shimer College, Mount Carroll, Illinois*

Regular departments, such as "Sight and Sound in Social Studies," have not been included in this list.

125. ARRAGON, R. F. "Techniques and Place of History in General Education," *Journal of General Education*, IV (April, 1950), 184-88.

Describes materials and methods of discussion and of writing which the author has found most useful in college history classes.

126. BAHR, GLADYS. "Consumer Education: Do Students Need It?" *Educational Leadership*, VII (March, 1950), 411-15. Reviews several attempts to meet students' demand for consumer education on the upper secondary level.

\* See also Item 628 (Edwards) and Item 667 ("The Uses of Lectures") in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1950, number of the *School Review*; and Item 547 (West) in the October, 1950, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

127. BAKER, G. DERWOOD (editor). "Economic Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIII (March, 1950), 377-440.  
This special issue contains articles on economic education by Ernest O. Melby, Howard Cummings, Mark Starr, the editor, and others.
128. BIRNBAUM, MAX. "Group Guidance through the Social Studies," *Social Education*, XIV (May, 1950), 211-14.  
Describes classroom uses of sociometry, subgroup discussions, and sociodrama in a social-problems class.
129. BLAKEMORE, JAMES E. "World History: A Critique of the Twentieth Yearbook," *Social Education*, XIV (October, 1950), 254-57.  
Urges use of carefully selected "functional" topics; criticizes confusion of ends, with consequent confusion of means, alleged to be reflected by the 1949 Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies.
130. BOLZAU, EMMA L. "Adapting American History to Slow Learners," *Social Education*, XIV (March, 1950), 115-17.  
Describes specific history-teaching techniques used in a Philadelphia high school.
131. BRADLEY, PHILLIPS. "Labor-Management Relations in the Classroom," *Social Education*, XIV (November, 1950), 314-17.  
Suggests safe ways of introducing the study of labor-management relations into the curriculum and describes suitable learning activities.
132. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "Intergroup Education," *School and Society*, LXX (November 26, 1949), 341-46.  
Reviews literature on intergroup education for the period 1946-49.
133. BRODSKY, CHARLES. "The Inquiring Reporter—A Technique in Teaching Government," *Social Studies*, XLI (January, 1950), 29-31.  
Civics students investigate their city and, in doing it, become participants rather than spectators in local politics.
134. BURKHARDT, RICHARD W., and SAWYER, MICHAEL O. *How To Take a Survey of Public Opinion*. How To Do It Series, No. 7. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1950. Pp. 8.  
States the objectives and describes the techniques of making and evaluating the results of a student public-opinion poll.
135. "Characteristics of the Good Democratic Citizen," *Social Education*, XIV (November, 1950), 310-13, 319.  
The National Council for the Social Studies and the Department of Defense cooperated in making this analysis.
136. CLIFTON, E. G. "Learning To Vote by a Laboratory Method," *Ohio Schools*, XXVII (November, 1949), 350-51.  
Describes how a six-year high school reproduced closely an adult election.
137. COLLINGS, MILLER R., and DIMOND, STANLEY E. "Do Social Studies Teachers Vote?" *Social Education*, XIV (October, 1950), 267-69.  
In Detroit they do, a little better than other teachers, still more than most citizens. Like most other "good citizens," they neglect the primaries.
138. "Consumer Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (December, 1949), 455-65.  
Ruth F. Chorley, George H. Pfleger, and Edna S. Rhinehart describe three approaches to high-school consumer education.
139. COOK, LLOYD ALLEN (editor). *College Programs in Intergroup Relations*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1950. Pp. xviii+366.  
First part of a two-volume report by twenty-four colleges participating in the College Study in Intergroup Relations, which concludes that the indirect is

preferable to the direct approach for reducing intergroup tensions, and stresses the need for an exact appraisal of the results of such projects.

140. CORBETT, JAMES F., and OTHERS. *Current Affairs and Modern Education: A Survey of the Nation's Schools*. Edited by DELBERT CLARK. New York: New York Times Co., 1950. Pp. xiv+278. Describes current practices and tries to clarify objectives and methods of the teaching of contemporary affairs in elementary and high schools.
141. CRARY, RYLAND W., and ROBINSON, JOHN T. *America's Stake in Human Rights*. Bulletin 24 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1949. Pp. viii+52. Discusses the major concepts involved in the human-rights issue and suggests suitable activities and references.
142. CUMMINGS, HOWARD H. (editor). *Improving Human Relations, through Classroom, School, and Community Activities*. Bulletin 25 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1949. Pp. vi+158. Reprints relevant articles from *Social Education* and *Democratic Human Relations*. Includes Robert Redfield's 1946 address on "The Study of Culture in General Education."
143. EBY, KERMIT. "Can We Teach Citizenship?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXI (November, 1949), 130-37. Argues that we can teach citizenship if we teach it realistically, involving students in the actual political process.
144. *Educating for Citizenship*. Bulletin 242, 1949, of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction. Harrisburg: Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1949. Pp. xx+344. Attempts to reconcile "subject-matter" and "area-of-experience" approaches in civic education and to show how all school studies and other experiences may contribute to this end.
145. "Education for Family Life," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXV (January, 1950), 7-61. Includes descriptions of high-school "problems" and "orientation" courses and of a junior-college "adjustment" approach.
146. ENGLE, T. L. "An Analysis of High-School Textbooks in Psychology," *School Review*, LVIII (September, 1950), 334-47. "Problems of personality" and "mental hygiene" are emphasized.
147. *An Evaluation of Citizenship Education in the High School: A Report of the Kansas Study of Education for Citizenship*. Manhattan, Kansas: Kansas State College Press, 1950. Pp. 42. Students' progress in knowledge of government exceeds their growth in critical thinking and in the habit of keeping informed on public issues, as measured by the tests used.
148. GARCIA, ANTONIO. "Teach the Concepts of Democracy," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXII (October, 1950), 37-39. Reports that a "shockingly high percentage [of high-school graduates] have absolutely no idea of the relations between government and citizens which differentiate the democracy from any other society."
149. GEMMELL, ALFRED. "The Problem of Reading Readiness in the Social Studies," *Social Studies*, XLI (October, 1950), 252-56. Stresses ways of stimulating high-school pupils to read more effectively in the social studies.
150. GILES, H. H. (editor). "Human Relations Education for Democracy," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIII (February, 1950), 313-76.



Theodore Brameld, Robert C. Weaver, the late Edwin R. Embree, the editor, and others wrote for this special issue.

151. GOLDMAN, BERNARD I., and SCRUTCHIONS, BENJAMIN. "Teaching a High School Unit on the Race Problem," *Councilor: Official Publication of the Illinois Council for the Social Studies*, XI (November, 1950), 5-13.  
Describes in detail how knowledge about race was taught and how attitudes were modified in Chicago among lower-class and lower-middle-class senior high school students of foreign parentage.
152. GROSSMAN, BELLA K. "A Course in World History for Retarded Readers," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXI (November, 1949), 42-47.  
Directed study, no homework, many visual aids, frequent review, and "concretizing the abstract" characterize this approach to teaching world history.
153. HAGER, DON J. "Some Observations on the Relationship between Social Science and Intergroup Education," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIII (January, 1950), 278-90.  
Analyzes critically the conceptual framework within which some American leaders of intergroup education operate.
154. *A Handbook for the Improvement of Textbooks and Teaching Materials as Aids to International Understanding*. UNESCO Publication No. 368. Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 1949. Pp. 172. (New York: Columbia University Press.)  
Traces the history of the textbook-improvement movement and describes UNESCO's program in this area.
155. HARAP, HENRY, and PRICE, RAY G. "Preparation of Teachers of Consumer Education," *Educational Record*, XXX (October, 1949), 458-64.  
Reports that "a balanced sequence of courses for teachers of consumption does not now exist" and suggests an interdepartmental sequence as a remedy.
156. JENNINGS, MANSON VAN BUREN. *The Development of the Modern Problems Course in the Senior High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 968. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950. Pp. x+180.  
Reviews the history, objectives, organization, content, methods, and materials of this course.
157. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Recent Developments: Organization and Methodology of the Social Studies," *Social Education*, XIII (December, 1949), 375-80.  
Reviews the major books in this field from 1946 to 1949.
158. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Educational News and Editorial Comment," *School Review*, LVIII (March, 1950), 125-37.  
Reviews chiefly recent materials in citizenship education and in the teaching of the social studies.
159. KEOHANE, ROBERT E. "Using Primary Sources in Teaching History," *Journal of General Education*, IV (April, 1950), 213-20.  
Analyzes the major uses of primary sources, past and present, in the teaching of history in American schools and describes the use of "great originals" in the College of the University of Chicago.
160. KLEE, LORETTA E. "How Do You Feel about World Peace? A Study of Some Changes in Expressed Attitudes of Senior High School Students," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLIII (November, 1949), 187-96.  
Class discussion seems most significant in influencing such changes in attitudes.
161. KLEE, LORETTA E. "How Can We Improve the Teaching of World History?" *Social Education*, XIV (October, 1950), 251-53.

Suggests that high-school world history really be centered in man, in worth-while ideas, and in critical thinking and discussion of problems common to all men.

162. KNAPP, ROYCE H. "Social Education and Citizens' Organizations," *Social Education*, XIV (April, 1950), 166-67, 170.

Suggests defenses against unwarranted attacks on social-studies teachers and teaching.

163. MCCLURE, DOROTHY. "Social-Studies Textbooks and Atomic Energy," *School Review*, LVII (December, 1949), 540-46.

Finds some, but not enough, school treatment of atomic energy.

164. METCALF, LAWRENCE E. "Attitudes and Beliefs as Materials of Instruction," *Progressive Education*, XXVII (February, 1950), 127-30.

Tells how to lead students to re-examine their beliefs and to clarify their attitudes on social issues while avoiding authoritarian inculcation.

165. MORSE, HORACE T., and McCUNE, GEORGE H. *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills*. Bulletin 15 of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1949 (revised). Pp. xi+82.

Improves a good set of study-skills items and shows the teacher how to use them.

166. NIETZ, JOHN A., and MASON, WAYNE E. "Early American Civil Government Textbooks: An Analysis of Their Content," *Social Education*, XIV (May, 1950), 201-2, 222.

A summary analysis shows that this subject area has a 150-year-old history in American schools.

167. NOSTRAND, HOWARD LEE, and BROWN, FRANCIS J. (editors). *The Role of Colleges and Universities in International Understanding*. American Council on

Education Studies, Vol. XIII. Series I, Reports of Committees and Conferences, No. 38. Washington: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. 138. Reports the 1949 Estes Park (Colorado) Conference and calls for a general basic college course on international affairs.

168. OESTE, GEORGE I. (editor). *Teaching America's Heritage of Freedom*. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1948-49, Vol. XLVI. Philadelphia: The Council (% G. I. Oeste, Germantown High School), 1950. Pp. xii+80.

Stresses ways of studying American ideals and institutions in social studies on the elementary, secondary, and college levels.

169. OESTE, GEORGE I. (editor). *Teaching the World Responsibilities of Americans*. Annual Proceedings of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies, 1947-1948, Vol. XLV. Philadelphia: The Council (% G. I. Oeste, Germantown High School), 1949. Pp. xii+76.

Discusses suitable content and methods of teaching for international understanding from the primary to college years.

170. "Our World Neighbors," *See and Hear*, VI (February, 1950), 1-28.

This issue is devoted to audio-visual resources for the social studies, with articles on intergroup relations, critical thinking on contemporary issues, the use of excerpts from feature films in history classes, etc.

171. OWEN, DAVID. "Harvard General Education in Social Science," *Journal of General Education*, V (October, 1950), 17-30.

Describes four "elementary," and lists ten "second-group," courses which attempt to implement, in college social studies, the principles set forth in *General Education in a Free Society*.

172. RADKE, MARIAN, and SUTHERLAND, JEAN. "Children's Concepts and Attitudes about Minority and Majority

American Groups," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XL (December, 1949), 449-68.

Children of a small midwestern town (Grades V-XII) exhibit, with increasing age, more derogatory stereotypes of Jews and Negroes. The findings indicate the need for more constructive teaching of democratic ideas and attitudes.

173. RATH, REUBEN JOHN. "History and Citizenship Training: An Austrian Example," *Journal of Modern History*, XXI (September, 1949), 227-38.

Reviews the four interpretations of history taught in Austrian schools from 1918 to 1948—an excellent case study to show the use of history to reflect the ideologies of those groups momentarily in power.

174. REDFIELD, ROBERT. "Social Science among the Humanities," *Measure*, I (Winter, 1950), 60-74.

Analyzes differences and similarities of central content and basic methods of the social sciences as compared with the natural sciences and, especially, the humanities. Recommends co-operation in the study of culture-civilizations of the Orient.

175. REED, THOMAS H., and REED, DORIS D. *Evaluation of Citizenship Training and Incentive in American Colleges and Universities*. New York: Citizenship Clearing House, Law Center, New York University, 1950. Pp. 64.

Describes what some colleges now do to educate for intelligent citizenship, concludes that their efforts are glaringly inadequate, and recommends improvements in introductory and other political-science courses.

176. SANDERS, IRWIN T. "Societies around the World: A Social Science Course at the University of Kentucky," *Social Forces*, XXVIII (October, 1949), 40-45.

Geographers, anthropologists, and sociologists use analytical and comparative study of six societies in a general social-studies course.

177. SANDERS, JENNINGS B. "Undergraduate History Curriculum in Teachers Colleges," *Higher Education*, VI (October 1, 1949), 31-34; "Undergraduate History Curriculum in the Ninety-four Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities," *ibid.* (November 15, 1949), 67-70; "History Curriculum in 110 Privately Controlled Liberal Arts Colleges: A Summary," *ibid.* (May 1, 1950), 201.

A study of the history curriculums in institutions of higher education which train teachers.

178. SAWYER, MICHAEL O., and PRICE, ROY A. "What Young Folk Think about Politics," *Social Education*, XIV (February, 1950), 71-72.

Presents evidence that the schools have not taught many of our ablest students what active political leadership really is.

179. SCHNEPP, BROTHER GERALD J. "International Understanding through Sociology and Economics," *National Catholic Educational Association Bulletin*, XLVIII (August, 1950), 309-13. Calls for the presentation of general and specific information, for the development of critical thinking, correction of wrong attitudes, and the teaching of the principles of social ethics.

180. "The Schools and World Affairs," *Educational Leadership*, VIII (October, 1950), 2-65.

This issue is noteworthy for accounts of fruitful international exchanges of students and for I. James Quillen's account of UNESCO's and national attempts to improve textbooks.

181. SLOYAN, GERARD S. *Christian Concepts in Social Studies in Catholic Education*. Washington: Catholic University of America Press, 1950 (second edition). Pp. xxiv+204.

Analyzes the religious and social content of twenty-five elementary social-studies courses in thirty-one Roman Catholic

dioceses in the United States. Finds "geography texts . . . devoid of integrally Christian concepts and largely of true social ones, while history and civics books are frequently enough either Catholic but not social or social but not Catholic."

182. "Social Science and General Education," *Teacher Education* (Field Service Bulletin of the Illinois State Normal University), XII (March, 1950), 3-31. Discusses course offerings in light of the general objectives of social education for prospective teachers.

183. "Social Studies," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXVII (October-November, 1949), 1-48.

A special issue which includes articles on community study and international tensions.

184. SPIESEKE, ALICE W. "Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies, 1948-1949," *Social Education*, XIII (December, 1949), 382-83; XIV (March, 1950), 139.

Supplements Bulletin 23 of the National Council for the Social Studies, a bibliography of recently published social-studies textbooks.

185. STECCHINI, LIVIO C. "The Historical Problem of the Fall of Rome," *Journal of General Education*, V (October, 1950), 57-61.

Describes treatment of this problem through the use of opposing historical interpretations in a college Sophomore course in general history.

186. SULLENGER, T. EARL, and OTHERS. "Sociology in the Secondary Schools," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XXIII (April, 1950), 488-94.

Reports on a survey of the status of sociology. Shows that 26 per cent of 1,100 high schools in 39 states use sociological materials in sociology or integrated courses.

187. TYRRELL, WILLIAM G. "Musical Recordings for World History," *Social*

*Education*, XIII (December, 1940), 361-66.

Reviews available and suitable materials.

188. VANDERMEER, A. W. "Relative Contributions to Factual Learning of the Pictorial and Verbal Elements of a Filmstrip," *School Review*, LVIII (February, 1950), 84-89.

Concludes that, for a particular filmstrip used in United States history classes, the basic learnings were obtained chiefly from the verbal rather than from the pictorial elements.

189. WELLS, N. W. "Time and Space: Orientation for Social-Studies Classes," *Clearing House*, XXV (September, 1950), 26-28.

Tells how to bring ninth-grade pupils to realize the vastness of space and of time in the development of the universe and of the human race.

190. WESLEY, EDGAR B. *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1950 (third edition). Pp. xiv+594.

This standard work has been reorganized and partially rewritten for high-school social studies. It includes two completely new chapters and an up-to-date annotated bibliography for each chapter.

191. WHITAKER, J. RUSSELL. "Conservation and the College Professor," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XXVII (May 1950), 329-38.

Outlines ways of developing a comprehensive conservation course at the college level.

192. WILLIAMS, JAY. "Original Writings as the Text," *Journal of Higher Education*, XXI (June, 1950), 281-87.

Discusses educational aims and methods of *The People Shall Judge*, an anthology of American issues as stated by contemporaries in the context of United States history.

193. WILSON, HOWARD E. "International Relations Clubs," *Educational Forum*, XIV (May, 1950), 403-8.

Reviews the history and current program of clubs in international relations.

## GEOGRAPHY

EDITH P. PARKER

*University of Chicago*

194. ALEXANDER, JOHN W. "Geography of Manufacturing: What Is It?" *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (October, 1950), 284-87.

Indicates core problems on which the study of the geography of manufacturing centers.

195. CALDWELL, HARRY H. "Geography in the High Schools of Idaho," *Journal of Geography*, XLVIII (December, 1949), 380-89.

Reports briefly the results of two status studies and offers suggestions concerning means of improving the situation revealed.

196. DOERR, ARTHUR H. "Chicago's Coal: Its Origin, Movement to Market, and Use," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (October, 1950), 261-69.

Presents material concerning the largest urban coal market in the world, which could constitute a unit of study in economic geography.

197. HATCHER, HALENE. "Conservation—An Immediate Concern to All Nations," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (September, 1950), 218-24.

Reports recommendations to UNESCO concerning the introduction of the teaching of the principles of conservation.

198. MILLER, ELBERT E., and HIGHSMITH, RICHARD M., JR. "The Hop Industry of the Pacific Coast," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (February, 1950), 63-77.

Presents concrete material which may be used in an economic-geography unit.

199. NELSON, HOWARD J. "Urban Geography in the High School," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (November, 1950), 313-19.

Reviews various curriculum developments and textbooks relating to urban study and summarizes the case for urban geography in the high school.

200. RENNER, GEORGE T. "Some Principles and Laws of Economic Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (January, 1950), 14-22.

Makes a tentative statement of seventeen generalizations concerning tendencies—generalizations which, in the author's words, "should prove valuable to teachers by providing them with the means for directing and sharpening their teaching of economic geography."

201. SAALE, CHARLES W. "Instruction in the Use of Maps Needs To Be Increased," *Journal of Geography*, XLVIII (November, 1949), 309-16.

States bases for the conclusion indicated by the title, points out some specific needs, and expresses conviction that "instruction in this area at the high-school level might help to establish a closer understanding of the One-World concept of living." Includes a bibliography.

202. SHARPE, M. E. "Teaching Relationships in Economic Geography," *Journal of Business Education*, XXV (September, 1949), 23-24.

Calls attention to the need for placing emphasis on ideas of interrelations in the teaching of economic geography.

203. STANLEY, RUTH HOFFMAN. "A Mexican Pueblo in Transition," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (October, 1950), 269-78.

Presents material of the concrete type needed in helping students understand changing occupancy patterns.

204. THRALLS, ZOE. "World Patterns in High School Geography," *Journal of*



*Geography*, XLIX (January, 1950), 22-26.

Outlines kinds of world patterns which need to be understood by young people if they are to do realistic thinking about world unity and world problems.

205. WARRINGTON, ALEXANDER. "Economic Geography Lecture Material," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (September, 1950), 248-52.

Describes briefly materials available from industries which can be used to improve the teaching of economic geography.

206. WHITTEMORE, KATHERYNE T.; CORFIELD, GEORGE; and CHEW, MARGARET. "A List of Articles on Maps and Their Use in Geographic Education," *Journal of Geography*, XLIX (October, 1950), 288-300.

Presents a bibliography prepared by a committee of the National Council of Geography Teachers.

## SCIENCE

WILBUR L. BEAUCHAMP

*University of Chicago*

207. AEBERSOLD, PAUL C. "Atomic Energy in American Life and Education," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (February, 1950), 130-50.

Relates atomic energy and science to our national security, our democracy, our religion, and our education. This is an article of interest to all science teachers.

208. AMES, CLARENCE E. "The Use of a Display Case for Science Education," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (October, 1950), 511-14.

Describes the construction of a display case to exhibit physical phenomena and applications.

209. ARGERSINGER, W. J. "New Developments in Chemistry of Interest to High School Teachers," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (February, 1950), 107-11.

Discusses trends and technical developments of interest in the teaching of chemistry.

210. BAKER, WOOLFORD B. "Science Teaching and the World of Tomorrow," *Science Education*, XXXIV (February, 1950), 7-15.

Presents a series of objectives for the science program and the types of problems a citizen must face in the world of tomorrow.

211. CURTIS, FRANCIS D. "Individual Laboratory Work Must Be Retained," *Science Teacher*, XVII (April, 1950), 63-64, 82-86.

Describes the controversy on lecture demonstration versus individual experimentation and outlines the effects it has had on practice.

212. ENNIS, JOSEPH. "Course in Applied Science for Nonacademic Pupils and Slow Learners," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXII (February, 1950), 50-55.

Describes a method of focusing science instruction on the practical aspects of science and presents a series of "jobs" focused on this end.

213. FRAZIER, ALEXANDER. "Finding Common Purposes in Science Education," *Science Education*, XXXIV (February, 1950), 31-36.

Describes methods whereby individual teachers of science can become acquainted with the objectives and methods of their colleagues and methods by which science teachers can work together as a group.

214. GRIFFITHS, DANIEL E. "An Experiment in Science for the General Student," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (October, 1950), 515-19.

Describes a course in science for the general student in the senior high school.

215. HEISS, ELWOOD D.; OBOURN, ELLSWORTH S.; and HOFFMAN, CHARLES W. *Modern Science Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1950. Pp. viii+462.

- A textbook dealing with all phases of science-teaching. This is a revision of *Modern Methods and Materials for Teaching Science*.
216. HOFF, FOSTER H., and BROWN, A. S. "The Semi-micro Approach in a First Chemistry Laboratory," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (February, 1950), 115-18.  
An evaluation of the potential contribution of semi-micro techniques to the chemical laboratory at the secondary-school level.
217. JOHNSON, PHILIP G. "Some Developments in Science Teaching and Testing," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (March, 1950), 187-99.  
Discusses the changes in the school population and in the curriculum and the effect of these changes on testing the achievement of pupils.
218. MACK, JOSEPH A. "Desirable Qualities in Demonstration Apparatus," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (January, 1950), 19-31.  
Presents a series of criteria for use in evaluating demonstration apparatus.
219. NOLL, VICTOR H. "Measurement Practices and Preferences of High School Science Teachers," *Science Education*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 165-67.  
Reports results of a questionnaire of a nation-wide survey to determine the types of tests employed by high-school science teachers.
220. "Problems Related to the Teaching of Problem-solving That Need To Be Investigated," *Science Education*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 180-84.  
The Third Annual Progress Report of the Committee on Research in Secondary-School Science of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, with J. Darrell Barnard as chairman. Presents a series of problems related to the nature of problem-solving, how problem-solving should be taught, and how ability to solve problems should be measured.
221. RARICK, G. LAWRENCE, and READ, JOHN G. "Criteria for Evaluating a Secondary School Science Program," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXVI (May, 1950), 306-15.  
Discusses a philosophy of science-teaching and its implications for secondary-school science.
222. REINER, WILLIAM B. "Evaluating Ability To Recognize Degrees of Cause and Effect Relationships," *Science Education*, XXXIII (December, 1949), 329-33; XXXIV (February, 1950), 15-28.  
Describes a procedure to produce growth in recognizing the degree of cause-and-effect relationships of phenomena and presents data as to its effectiveness.

## MATHEMATICS

GEORGE E. HAWKINS

*Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois*

223. ALLEN, FRANK B. "Teaching for Generalization in Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (October, 1950), 245-51.  
Discusses and gives illustrations of the multiconverse concept, the flexible diagram technique, and the principle of continuity in teaching geometry.
224. AYRE, H. G. "On the Status of Teaching Load, Salary, and Professional Preparation of Junior College Mathematics Teachers," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (February, 1950), 54-60.  
Reports results of a survey of seventy-seven midwest public junior colleges on questions relating to the teaching of mathematics.
225. BERGER, MARGARET L. "Provisions for Meeting the Needs of the Poorly Prepared Student in Algebra," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (March, 1950), 107-11.  
Reports returns on a questionnaire sent to five hundred colleges and universities

showing provisions for helping the student poorly prepared in mathematics.

226. BROWN, KENNETH E. "The Content of a Course in General Mathematics—Teachers' Opinions," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (January, 1950), 25-30.  
Reports results of a questionnaire showing the present status of, and also the opinion regarding content for, a college course in general mathematics as a part of general education.

227. BROWN, KENNETH E. "Why Teach Geometry?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (March, 1950), 103-6.  
Summarizes returns on a questionnaire giving opinions of five hundred teachers of mathematics regarding objectives in teaching geometry.

228. EALES, JOHN R. "A Job Survey as Class Motivation in General Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (November, 1950), 318-20.  
Reports the plan followed by pupils and teachers in a job survey as a means of motivating the work in general mathematics.

229. FAWCETT, HAROLD P. "A Unified and Continuous Program in Mathematics," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (May, 1950), 342-48.  
Discusses six fundamental and unifying concepts in mathematics which should be recognized by teachers and pupils.

230. FEHR, HOWARD F. "A Proposal for a Modern Program in Mathematical Education in the Secondary Schools," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIX (December, 1949), 723-30.  
Discusses need for revision of the mathematics curriculum and makes suggestions regarding it.

231. FELTGES, EDNA M. "Planning a Mathematics Tournament," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (October, 1950), 268-70.

Gives details for planning and conducting a contest in mathematics for high-school pupils.

232. GAGER, WILLIAM A. "A Functional Program for Secondary Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLII (December, 1949), 381-85.

Summarizes the work of a state committee in recommending revisions needed in the general-mathematics program for high-school pupils.

233. GAGER, WILLIAM A. "Concepts for Certain Functional Mathematics Courses," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (October, 1950), 533-39.

Reports a six-year program in mathematics for general education for the state of Florida.

234. GROVE, ETHEL L. "Are We Teaching Students or Textbooks?" *School Science and Mathematics*, L (June, 1950), 430-34.

Summarizes results of an opinion questionnaire in which fifty-two teachers of mathematics state how they use the textbook and give their opinions regarding it.

235. *A Half Century of Science and Mathematics Teaching*. Fiftieth Anniversary Volume, Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers. Oak Park, Illinois: Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, Inc. (Box 408), 1950. Pp. x+198.

A summary of significant developments in the teaching of science and mathematics during the first half of the twentieth century, together with a brief history of the Central Association and the part it has played in these developments.

236. HARTUNG, MAURICE L., and ERICKSON, R. L. "Graphical Methods in Science and Mathematics Teaching," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (March, 1950), 200-208.

Discusses some notions frequently overlooked in teaching and using graphical methods.

237. HENDRIX, GERTRUDE. "Prerequisite to Meaning," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (November, 1950), 334-39.  
Discusses certain aspects of the psychology of learning and illustrates with concepts in mathematics.
238. HUNT, HEROLD C. "Mathematics—Its Role Today," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (November, 1950), 313-17.  
Presents the viewpoint of a school administrator on the type of mathematics program all pupils need.
239. JOHNSON, DONOVAN A. "Are Films and Filmstrips Effective in Teaching Geometry?" *School Science and Mathematics*, L (October, 1950), 570-74.  
Reports results of a study designed to measure the effectiveness of the use of films and filmstrips in teaching geometry.
240. KARNES, HOUSTON T. "Junior College Mathematics in View of the President's Report," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (April, 1950), 149-52.  
Discusses the need for a college course in mathematics for students not interested in the traditional mathematics courses.
241. KRATHWOHL, WILLIAM C. "Constructing a Mathematics Achievement Test," *Journal of Engineering Education*, XL (November, 1949), 178-86.  
Discusses and illustrates the steps involved in constructing an achievement test.
242. LAYTON, W. I. "The Certification of Teachers of Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLII (December, 1949), 377-80.  
Summarizes findings in a survey of state requirements for teaching mathematics in elementary schools and high schools in the forty-eight states.
243. LEWIS, EUNICE. "An Experience Program for the Training of Teachers of Mathematics at the University of Oklahoma," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (March, 1950), 95-102.  
Discusses planned experiences in the training of teachers of mathematics.
244. NEWSOM, C. V. "Mathematics and Modern Educational Trends," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLII (November, 1949), 339-44.  
Discusses five forces seeking to modify instruction in mathematics.
245. ROSSKOPF, MYRON F. "The Present State of Evaluation of Critical Thinking in Algebra and Geometry," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (April, 1950), 143-48.  
Gives an annotated bibliography of published tests designed to measure ability to do critical thinking.
246. SANFORD, CHARLES W. "High School Science and Mathematics—For Whom and For What?" *School Science and Mathematics*, L (April, 1950), 307-19.  
Discusses certain findings and outlines probable directions for further investigation in the Illinois curriculum study.
247. SLEIGHT, NORMA. "Semi-logarithmic and Logarithmic Graphing for Intermediate Algebra Students," *School Science and Mathematics*, XLIX (December, 1949), 737-48.  
Discusses a supplementary topic involving numerous practical problems for use with superior pupils.
248. SNADER, DANIEL W. "Teacher Preparation for a New Era in Mathematics," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (February, 1950), 45-53.  
Makes suggestions for needed improvement in the training of teachers.
249. STURM, HAROLD E. "Development of a Junior College Mathematics Program for Non-science, Non-mathematics Majors," *School Science and Mathematics*, L (June, 1950), 437-41.  
Reports a summary of a panel discussion on curriculum studies in the area and on new approaches to this curriculum problem as exhibited in new textbooks.

250. VAN WAYNEN, MARTINUS. "What Kind of Geometry Shall We Teach?" *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (January, 1950), 3-11.

Advocates focusing attention on the principles of logical thinking and their application to nonmathematical situations.

251. ZANT, JAMES H. "A Program for Determining the Mathematical Needs of Engineering Students," *Mathematics Teacher*, XLIII (March, 1950), 91-94. Summarizes certain studies of mathematical needs of engineering students and suggests procedures for further analysis.

### FOREIGN LANGUAGE<sup>3</sup>

FRANCIS F. POWERS

*University of Washington*

252. ALEXANDER, THEODOR W. "The Picture Method in Second-Year German," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 302-4.

Describes how large colored illustrations may be used to create interest in second-year German classes.

253. BABCOCK, EDNA E. "The Spanish Textbook," *Hispania*, XXXIII (February, 1950), 61-63.

Proposes that evaluation of textbooks be made on the basis of subject matter, techniques, mechanical features, and authorship.

254. BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W. "Instruction in Foreign Languages," *School and Society*, LXXI (January 28, 1950), 53-60. Reviews late literature in the field of foreign-language-teaching.

255. BURKE, LOUISE. "Streamlining in Junior High French Classes," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 216-18.

<sup>3</sup> See also Item 653 (Rockwell) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1950, number of the *School Review*.

Shows how students' suggestions may be used as the foundation of profitable classroom experiences.

256. COHEN, LEON J. "Composition through Précis-writing," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 389-91.

Compares the advantages of précis-writing and original compositions as techniques in foreign-language-teaching.

257. COOK, CHARLES H., JR., and COHEN, LEON J. "Short-Wave Radio in Language Teaching," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 199-203.

Discusses values of short-wave radio in language-teaching and lists sources where information on broadcasting schedules may be obtained.

258. DUNCAN, MAUDE HELEN. "Dictation in the Modern Language Class," *French Review*, XXIII (March, 1950), 393-96.

Presents techniques and uses of dictation in the foreign-language classroom.

259. FREUNDLICH, CHARLES I. "A New Approach to the Study of Latin," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXXII (June, 1950), 76-79.

Analyzes present-day Latin-teaching and makes suggestions for its improvement.

260. HAMILTON, D. LEE, and HADEN, ERNEST F. "Three Years of Experimentation at the University of Texas," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (February, 1950), 85-102.

Reports methods, techniques, results, and recommendations of a three-year study on the teaching of first-year French and Spanish.

261. HOCKETT, CHARLES F. "Learning Pronunciation," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 261-69.

Stresses importance of acquiring good pronunciation in language and suggests material and procedures to be used in this connection.



262. LEMIEUX, CLAUDE P. "Audio-visual Aids in the Teaching of Russian," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIII (December, 1949), 594-602.  
Explains how maps, pictures, records, and films may be used in teaching Russian and lists sources for obtaining this material.
263. LONG, ALICE C. "General Language Devices in Latin Teaching," *Classical Journal*, XLV (October, 1949), 47-49.  
Describes how inductive and extensional methods, reading in context, use of English derivatives, and the relationship of words can be utilized in a study of Latin.
264. LOVY, CHARLES W. "Audio-visual Needle for Foreign Language," *Clearing House*, XXIV (January, 1950), 278-82.  
Proposes direct experience with foreign cultures, foreign-language periodicals exhibits, films, phonographs, and broadcasting as media in foreign-language-teaching.
265. NEALON, JACK. "The Foreign Language Club as an Extra-curricular Activity," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 58-60.  
Discusses aims of foreign-language clubs, student need, and faculty preparation in this area.
266. NEWMARK, MAXIM. "Guidance in Foreign Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 3-17.  
Analyzes questions asked by students concerning foreign-language study.
267. NORGOOD, GILBERT. "Are We Teaching Virgil?" *Classical Journal*, XLV (February, 1950), 219-23.  
Suggests procedures for developing an appreciation of classical verse.
268. PATOUILLET, RAYMOND. "Languages in Action," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (February, 1950), 146-50.  
Shows how a "United Nations" skit may be used to point out the vital purposes of foreign languages in the world today.
269. PAUCK, CHARLES E. "A Preliminary Investigation of the Factors Which Discourage the Student in the Intermediate Courses of a Foreign Language," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 384-88.  
Lists frustration and old methods of teaching intermediate classes as the reasons why students do not continue in foreign-language studies.
270. PRESS, CYNTHIA. "Vary the Approach," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 219-21.  
Explains how posters, homemade window shades, slides, opaque projectors, and sound recorders may be used as motivators in foreign-language classrooms.
271. RAYMOND, JOSEPH. "Using Riddles in the Spanish Class," *Hispania*, XXXIII (February, 1950), 56-59.  
Presents merits of riddle-solving and gives examples of riddles which could be used.
272. ROSENBAUM, ERIC. "Need for a Better Methods Course," *German Quarterly*, XXIII (March, 1950), 101-4.  
Proposes that more attention be given to grammar, lesson-planning, incidental cultural information, and practical applications in methods courses.
273. RUSSELL, HARRY J. "What Is Readable and What Is Not Readable in a Foreign Language?" *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (April, 1950), 270-75.  
Reviews literature in the area of readability and suggests criteria for judging the readability of foreign-language books.
274. SÁNCHEZ, JOSÉ. "Linguafilms: 16mm. Films on Latin America and Spain," *Hispania*, XXXIII (May, 1950), 150-61.  
States benefits of foreign-language films and lists sources where they may be obtained.
275. SCHERER, GEORGE A. C. "The Psychology of Teaching Reading through Lis-

- tening," *German Quarterly*, XXIII (May, 1950), 151-60.
- Advocates use of the receptive skills of listening and reading in large classes in beginning German.
276. SHEROVER, MAX. "Dormiphonics—A New Language Learning Technique," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (October, 1950), 444-46.
- Describes how dormiphonics may be used in applying the principle of association to foreign-language-learning.
277. SMITH, LESLIE F. "Is There a Trend and Why?" *School and Society*, LXX (November 5, 1949), 292-93.
- Analyzes the reasons why Latin is suffering a decline in secondary schools.
278. "Soon: Cleopatra," *Time*, LV (May 1, 1950), 54.
- Reports on the success of the Latin newspaper, *Acta diurna*, published in Britain.
279. "Teaching on Tape," *Life*, XXVIII (April 17, 1950), 169-72.
- Describes how tape recorders, earphones, and simultaneous translations may be used in study of foreign languages.
280. VÄÄNÄNEN, VEIKKO. "Linguistics in the Classroom," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (May, 1950), 347-50.
- Recommends use of linguistics in teaching foreign languages.
281. WELLEK, SUSAN. "A Natural Method for Teaching Modern Languages," *Modern Language Journal*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 41-44.
- Recommends practice exercises in hearing, then reading and writing, as the natural approach in foreign languages.

## EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*The Idea and Practice of General Education: An Account of the College of the University of Chicago.* By Present and Former Members of the Faculty. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1950. Pp. xii + 334. \$3.50.

In view of the widespread interest in general education and the growing number of programs in the country as a whole, readers will welcome eagerly the publication of descriptive and analytical works about individual programs. *The Idea and Practice of General Education* contains a detailed account of the genesis and operation of the general-education program at the College of the University of Chicago, together with the rationale of its operation. The authors illustrate with clear detail what is meant by the general objective of developing "wisdom" in the student.

The rationale of the total program is set forth in precise and persuasive manner by Dean Faust in the lead chapter. It would be quite impossible for a reader to disagree with the conclusions he develops so skilfully—impossible, that is, if one accepts Dean Faust's premises. He elaborates the principle of unity underlying the Chicago plan in terms of the intellectual values of the well-known rationalist point of view:

The best way to prepare a student to profit from experience—to discover guiding principles in it—is to prepare him for it by inducing him to read thoughtfully what the best thinkers about the problems of man and society have to say [p. 19].

The other chapter in Part I, by Reuben Frodin, provides a blow-by-blow account,

with minute documentation, of the administrative development of the College and its curriculum. This growth took place in the face of many obstacles in the long valley between the twin peaks of educational ferment of Harper and Hutchins. This narration shows clearly how the preoccupation with specialized study and research on the part of the faculty of the University of Chicago made the development of a curriculum of general studies an uphill fight, almost unobtainable until a separate college and a separate faculty were authorized. It reveals further the intense concern of an exceptionally competent faculty in the College with constant improvement of their offerings, and the major revisions which have been made since the program was established in 1931.

The curriculum section of the volume is significant in that it puts in very specific terms, with clear illustrations, the point of view underlying the composition, methods, and major purposes of each part of the program. Of special value to staff members in other colleges who are in the initial stages of developing their own general-education program is the insight into the thinking of the College faculty in their consideration of possible alternative ways of course construction, and an account of the reasons for which they rejected certain types of approaches and of how they worked out their own distinctive approach. The "division of labor" among the three major areas and the concept of their relatedness is incisively described by Schwab (p. 150) in the chapter on the natural sciences.

In view of the current debate about the possible place which foreign languages may

assume as a part of general education, readers will find interest in the double approach at Chicago through the study of linguistics as well as a specific foreign language. The concluding chapter of this section presents in detail a feature which is a *rara avis* in programs of general education—final-year courses whose purpose is to integrate the thinking of students about the learning experiences they have had. As McNeill states:

Both strive to integrate the College curriculum: the one historically, by focusing attention on genesis and development, the other philosophically, by concentrating attention on intellectual analysis and methodology [p. 225].

The end of each chapter in the section on curriculum provides a detailed list of assignments and readings. In these lists the reader will note the keen intellectual challenge to the student, not only to read widely, but to reflect critically and constructively on what he reads. One author indicates that in each course a considerable portion of readings is assigned for independent study, upon which about half the items in the comprehensive examinations are based.

In the final section, the chapter on teaching is not a discussion of methods, but rather an argument, with examples, to support the thesis that the *purpose* of teaching is to stimulate thinking rather than to provide the student with an array of facts or synthetic "solutions" to problems. The chapter on examining describes the uses made of four types of tests: entrance, placement, advisory, and evaluation. Special discussion is given the course-end comprehensive examinations, upon which students' progress in the College is based. The twenty-one pages of illustrative items will be stimulating to teachers who wish to examine questions, both essay and objective, that probe deeply into the breadth and significance of the students' learning. The concluding chapter on advising is concerned with the method of using members of the teaching staff as academic advisers rather than with counseling techniques.

In attempting to assay the total impres-

sion which the volume makes, it is likely that some readers will be annoyed by the tone of self-righteousness which pervades many of the chapters. The authors concertedly reject theories of general education other than those adopted by the faculty of the College as unworthy of consideration, without allowing sufficiently for the fact that the highly selected student body of the College is far from typical. Even with this vastly superior group, one author states that the tendency is to direct the planning of courses and the teaching primarily toward the A students (pp. 268-69). This would most certainly allow the faculty to operate in the intellectual stratosphere. Faculties in other institutions with a different clientele might admittedly be allowed to hold different theories of the learning process, the nature of knowledge, the organization of a curriculum, and the objectives of general education. It is undoubtedly true that the program is excellently suited to the intellectualized outcomes which it stresses, but it would be pertinent to have the results of follow-up studies to see if graduates also take an active part in community affairs.

The title of the book might be considered misleading, since it has practically nothing to do with ideas and practices in general education other than those in the College of the University of Chicago, and one must read the subtitle to understand the import of the contents correctly.

The volume is in large part a compilation or adaptation of materials previously published in various books or periodicals, as Dean Ward notes in the Foreword. It brings down to date, and with more ample detail, the earlier account written by Boucher and Brumbaugh in *The Chicago College Plan*. In spite of the disparate origins of its parts, *The Idea and Practice of General Education* presents a unified and well-integrated impression which is a tribute to the skill of its editor.

H. T. MORSE

*University of Minnesota*

MINNESOTA COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION, *Higher Education in Minnesota*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1950. Pp. xvi+420. \$4.00.

One of two divergent policies (and combinations of them) may be used in setting up inquiries concerning higher education on a state-wide basis within individual commonwealths. One of these is to call in specialists from the outside to prepare reports and make recommendations. The other is to rely on local personnel to do this work. The important publication reviewed here is the product of the second policy.

Readers conversant with state "surveys" are aware of the main arguments for and against both policies: the outside specialist may more readily take the objective and disinterested view but may at times overlook vital local considerations, whereas in the "self-survey" the investigators have the advantage of knowing better these local considerations but on occasion may be unable to take a sufficiently detached view of existing institutions and practices. The self-survey policy has also the potent argument of the deeper comprehension deriving from efforts at self-salvation as compared with salvation imposed by outsiders. It may, therefore, be more conducive to efforts at improvement.

This four-hundred-page report is the outcome of the activity of a Commission on Higher Education authorized by the state legislature of Minnesota in 1947 for appointment by the state commissioner of education. The state commissioner served as chairman, and the other members were representative of the various educational interests in the state, such as the State Department of Education, private colleges, junior colleges, teachers' colleges, the University of Minnesota, and local school systems. A comparison of the membership of the commission with the authorship of the various chapters shows that almost all members were collaborating authors and indicates that the members were not the mere figureheads that often make up such commissions. The introduction by the

chairman makes clear that this volume represents "a detailed expansion of the findings condensed in two earlier publications," *Tomorrow's Resources* and *Unfinished Business*, attractive and informative brochures which have had wide attention among friends of education in the nation. The present report draws both on studies made especially for the commission and on the results of related inquiries made under other auspices.

The broad scope of the report may be noted in the captions of the seven parts and its seventeen chapters. Part I, "The Setting of Higher Education in Minnesota," contains chapters on "Minnesota's Social and Economic Background for Higher Education," "Trends and Problems in Minnesota Public Schools," and "An Overview of Higher Education in Minnesota Today." Part II, "The Student Potential for Higher Education in Minnesota," has separate chapters on high-school graduates one year and nine years after graduation. Part III deals with the junior college in chapters on its historical development and status, the need for terminal-occupational curriculums, and a follow-up study of junior-college students. Part IV, concerned with the liberal arts colleges, in one chapter considers "Problems Facing Minnesota's Private Colleges" and in a second reports a follow-up study of former students. Part V, dealing with teacher education in the state, presents successive chapters on "The State Teachers Colleges in Minnesota's Program of Higher Education," "Studies of Minnesota College Students Who Are Preparing for Teaching Careers," "Studies of Elementary School Teachers in Minnesota," and "Studies of Secondary School Teachers in Minnesota." Part VI completes the portrait of higher education in the state with two chapters on the University of Minnesota: one on its programs, services, and problems, and the other on its students. The concluding part (VII) projects "The Future of Higher Education in Minnesota" in chapters on "Minnesota's Next Steps in Higher Education" and "Long-



Range Goals for Minnesota's Colleges and Universities." The final chapter is reported as a collaboration by the president of the University of Minnesota and the state commissioner of education.

Although desirable, it is out of the question in a brief review to draw on the broad array of evidence presented and summarized in such an extensive report or even to present the conclusions. Further consideration here must be restricted to a few comments. One of these relates to the remarkable degree of internal consistency of the report, notwithstanding its multifarious authorship. This consistency can probably be ascribed to frequent conferences of the commission and to the efforts of Ruth E. Eckert, professor of higher education at the University of Minnesota and chairman of the Work Committee of the Commission. Professor Eckert is indicated as a collaborator on eight of the report's seventeen chapters.

One serious exception to this internal consistency should be noted. Because the junior college is the single one of the types of educational institution considered in the report that is recommended for notable numerical increase, it is disconcerting to find that, although at several points (for example, pp. 64, 68, 88, 89, 123, 167) the main body of the report provides support for a policy of localism, the recommendation in the last chapter is for a policy of regionalism (p. 409) in developing these institutions. While the distribution of population in a state like Minnesota may call for some concession to regionalism, evidence has for some years been at hand to warrant a policy of localism as a base of departure with regionalism only in a supplementary role.

It is reassuring to note in the introduction by the chairman of the commission that the 1949 legislature authorized a new commission which is "charged with continued study of higher education and with the study of vocational education as well" (p. xii). One infers that the inclusion of vocational education implies a study of its relationships to existing institutions, including the junior

college, especially as the authors of the chapter on terminal-occupational curriculums state that what they report "is only a beginning" (p. 160).

It is to be hoped also that the continuation has included, or will include, two extensions touching the junior college: one of these developing and proposing a specific plan of aid from state sources generous enough to obviate a charge for tuition; the other, a sound plan of district organization that takes into account the need for multiplying junior colleges on a local basis. The present report says that "extending the area of support of each [junior] college to include several school districts would help to provide the necessary resources to enlarge and enrich their offerings" (p. 387). It would be regrettable if this means that the several underlying districts included would be left intact and that the new district would be superimposed for maintaining the junior colleges. It would be greatly preferable for the commission to include a large-scale inquiry looking toward erection of vertically unified districts large enough to warrant establishment of junior colleges in them.

Minnesota is to be commended for not having fallen into the error of erecting autonomous districts for high-school purposes, as did states like California, Illinois, and Oregon. At the same time, her organization for lower schools includes many small and weak districts that might well be replaced by large-district consolidation. A fresh approach to the whole problem of district organization in the state should be a wholesome thing for the lower schools and would, at the same time, help to prepare the way for the needed expansion of junior-college opportunities. Nothing less than a bold, fundamental, and prodigious inquiry into the district problem can adequately serve to mark out the lines of district organization for all school levels up through the junior-college period.

A final comment here concerns the problem of organization at the state level for coordinating the programs of all post-high-

school institutions. While the problem is not ignored, it is given less consideration in this report than in most state surveys of higher education. The recommendation is for a representative commission "so constituted that it can act effectively as a state-wide research and planning body for all of higher education in Minnesota" (p. 386). Emphasis in the discussion of the proposal is on a "voluntary" as against an "authoritarian" organization. In line with the difference between surveys by out-of-state specialists and self-surveys by local personnel mentioned in the first paragraph of this review, it is more than likely that an out-of-state agency would have spelled out the state-wide organization in greater detail and urged vesting it with more control.

With the exceptions noted, the report is in many ways a model of comprehensiveness and of types of approach in inquiry. It should prove highly useful, not only to the state for which it was intended to apply, but also, in scope and procedures, to persons contemplating state-wide inquiries elsewhere.

LEONARD V. KOOS

University of Chicago



PAUL RANDOLPH FARNSWORTH, *Musical Taste: Its Measurement and Cultural Nature*. Stanford University Publications, University Series, Education-Psychology. Vol. II, No. 1. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1950. Pp. 94. \$1.50.

Books dealing with musical taste and other aesthetic problems are not often brought to the attention of workers in music in the secondary-school and junior-college areas. Yet there is no good reason why they should not be. Secondary-school teachers of music are too often exclusively preoccupied with the practical problems of their calling, too little aware of what has already been done for music in the fields of psychology and aesthetics. A casual glance at the footnote citations of studies in these two fields found on almost every page of Farnsworth's new publication, *Musical Taste: Its Measurement*

and *Cultural Nature*, will disclose many interesting and provocative titles that should lure the curious reader forward to explore their contents.

Such matters as the study of musical taste and kindred subjects are of pressing importance in guiding the development of adolescent attitudes toward music and art in general, so as to provide the future adult citizen with trustworthy criteria when confronted with lapses of good taste in any of the public channels of communication. One unprovided with such criteria might be affronted by some vandal's placing a mustache on the "Mona Lisa" while accepting complacently a tasteless burlesque of an episode from Wagner's *Die Walküre*.

Enough has been said, it is hoped, to justify consideration of the present work on musical taste. At the outset, Farnsworth outlines in the Preface the scope of his study: his judgments concerning the nature of musical taste with supporting data collected by him and his students, together with descriptions of earlier research studies referring to the same subject. He believes that musical taste "is peculiar to a particular group of people, a particular place, and a particular period of history" (p. 3); that it is, therefore, a phenomenon of the social sciences and should be studied by means of social-science techniques, such as polling, sampling, and other types of statistical methods.

The first three of the eight chapters comprising the main contents deal with laws governing musical taste, results of the author's own earlier studies, and a description of the formal tests that attempt to measure musical taste. It is unfortunate that Farnsworth does not begin by telling us what the elements of musical taste are; he somewhat arbitrarily selects one—the determination by rank of eminence among a selected group of composers—and presents the results of polling procedures done by him in an earlier project<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> P. R. Farnsworth, "Stereotypes in the Field of Musical Eminence," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, XXIV (July-December, 1941), 347-81.

and by others. This is the element which is stressed by the author throughout the rest of the work as reflecting current conditions of musical taste.

It may be of interest to give the consensus of opinion of all groups polled—musicologists, symphony players, college Sophomores, etc.—regarding which four top-ranking composers have contributed most to music or are eminent for a variety of other reasons. They are Beethoven, Bach, Mozart, and Wagner, with Brahms close behind. Significantly, among the high-school groups polled, the choices were Beethoven, Tchaikovsky, Bach, with Schubert and Gershwin tied for fourth place.

The remainder of the monograph deals with a discussion of "Polling and Some of Its Problems" (chapter iv); "The More Operational Procedures" (chapter v); "Some of the Conditioners of Taste" (chapter vi); "Selected Lists of Eminent Composers," on the basis of space allotted to them in encyclopedias, general and musical, musical treatises and histories of music (chapter vii); and "Concluding Remarks" (chapter viii). There are an Appendix, a Subject Index, and a Name Index.

It must be mentioned that Farnsworth does not aim to give final answers to cover the entire field of musical taste but rather to prepare the way for further investigation. He claims that quantitative methodologies are valid for preliminary findings but not for more detailed researches.

Limitations of space will not allow discussion of some of the findings presented. A few of them offer wide latitude in interpretation. Take, for instance, the statement (not Farnsworth's) that, over a considerable period of

time, Beethoven's *Ninth* is the lowest in popular favor among his nine symphonies (p. 27). Here the statistical method is not a reliable guide. "Popular favor" is measured by the number of times a work was listed on symphony programs over a given period of time. When it is recalled that the *Ninth* is the longest and the most difficult of the nine symphonies and that it requires four eminent (and expensive) soloists and a large chorus for the taxing music of its final movement, it is easy to understand why it is "lowest in favor." It can be given in most cases only under festival conditions. Its infrequent performance, therefore, is no indication of a decline in musical taste but is rather a reflection of the control that economic conditions exercise over the "popularity" of a musical work. One has the uncomfortable feeling that many other of the book's statements based on statistical findings would be susceptible to ambiguous interpretation—in other words, would have little bearing on the matter of taste.

With this reservation, one can accept the results of old and new researches as reflecting the prevailing state of musical taste in the domain of "serious" music ("popular" music is only tangentially considered). Even Farnsworth admits the tentative nature of this study. Here are his closing words:

In some degree our tools have been found to be unreliable and invalid. We believe, however, that they are good enough to have uncovered "facts" which are worth the careful consideration of musicologists, musical educators, and social scientists in general [p. 83].

With all this we agree.

V. HOWARD TALLEY

University of Chicago



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